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SELECTED PAPERS FROM THE ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES (47TH, SAN FRANCISCO, FEBRUARY 27-MARCH 3, 1967).

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IN ADDITION TO THE THREE PRINCIPAL ADDRESSES ("TO TEMPER THE SWORD OF INTELLECT," "SOCIAL CHANGE AND THE JUNIOR COLLEGE," AND "A TIME TO EVERY PURPOSE") SELECTED PAPERS FROM NINE OF THE 10 SESSIONS ARE REPRODUCED. EACH SESSION CONCERNED A SPECIFIC TOPIC--(1) EXPERIMENTATION AND INNOVATION, (2) FACULTY VIEWS OF COLLEGE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION, (3) CURRICULUMS FOR THE BIG CITY COMMUNITY COLLEGE, (4) JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS, (5) FACULTY ORIENTATION AND INSERVICE PROGRAMS, (6) ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS OF THE EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEMBER, (7) DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMS, (8) PLANNING COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACILITIES, AND (9) WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS. THIS DOCUMENT IS ALSO AVAILABLE FOR $2.00 FROM THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES, 1315 SIXTEENTH STREET, N.W., WASHINGTON, D.C. 20036. (WO)

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selected papers

47th Annual Convention American Association of Junior Colleges
February 27-March 3, 1967, San Francisco, California

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SELECTED PAPERS

From the 47th Annual Convention
American Association of Junior Colleges
February 27-March 3, 1967, San Francisco, California

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1315 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., 20036

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INTRODUCTION

The forty-seventh annual meeting of the Association was the largest in its history. Nearly 1,800 persons registered. The meeting was also one of the best in the history of the Association in terms of the addresses and discussions which took place. We believe this publication will reflect the timeliness and quality of the various sessions.

This is the fourth edition of *Selected Papers*. It is our intention to continue this annual publication. All of the presentations made at the convention are not represented here, but most are. In some cases the presentations were in the nature of extemporaneous discussion and there were no manuscripts available for publication. Such was the case with all the presentations in *Session 2:* "The Federal Government, the Compact, and Junior Colleges." So this publication is not a proceedings. Rather, it is what the title implies: selected papers from the forty-seventh annual meeting.

Copies of this book are being sent to members of the Association. Additional copies are for sale as noted on the copyright page.

We would like to express here our appreciation for the contributions made by all the participants in the convention.

The next convention of the Association will be February 26-March 1, 1968, in Boston, Massachusetts.

Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.
Executive Director
American Association of Junior Colleges

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TO TEMPER THE SWORD OF INTELLECT

By Edward Joseph Shoben, Jr., Director
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American Council on Education
Washington, D. C.

Virtually all of us now give willing assent to Alfred North Whitehead's dictum that "the race that does not value trained intelligence is doomed." In many ways, it is obviously meet and right that we should do so. And yet there is ample room for us to ask what our affirmation really implies and to question the wisdom of the social policies and institutional practices that derive from it.

To set our problem in perspective, we may properly remind ourselves that the human central nervous system, capped by that marvelously intricate network of cells called the cerebral cortex, is the basis for man's supremacy in the animal kingdom. It is a curious fact that this relatively small glob of tissue should prove mightier than the tiger's fang or the mastodon's tusk in the battle for survival, but it is precisely this fragile and semisolid organ of intellect that accounts for the hegemony of men over the globe and for our present state of being poised on the brink of outer space, that new New World for our conquering.

In this context, there is no need either to rehearse at length the evolutionary story or to catalog in detail the characteristics of our modern era as the power of intellect has formed it. It is important, however, that we establish the sense, now widely felt if only vaguely understood, in which ours is a time of revolution—a time of more rapid and more far-reaching change than any before known in the whole history of our creative species. To discuss this complex of issues entails an embarrassing revelation of any one man's ignorance and his risking a plunge into the cliche-infested pit of the commonplace, but it is essential that we realize as best we can that ours is a world whirling through the second great discontinuity in the long saga of humanity. The first was the shift from barbarism to civilization; ours is the shift from what Lewis Mumford[1] has called historic to post-historic man or from what Kenneth Boulding[2] has termed civilized to postcivilized society.

That first shift occurred, relatively slowly and at different times in different places, with the development of agriculture to a point where food surpluses provided support for men who worked more with their heads than with their hands. Science, philosophy, imaginative literature, the more sophisticated religions, and more systematic forms of commerce all came into their own in the cities made possible by radical transformations in the growing of crops and the domestication of animals. The point holds for the Egypt of the Pharaohs, the high civilizations of antique China, the Greece and Rome of our own classical past, and the great empires of the Inca. Yet in all these societies, the food surplus rarely exceeded 20 or 25 per cent of the total product. Even with 75 or 80 per cent of the population necessarily engaged in the production of food, the remaining fourth or fifth of the people, only a fraction of whom were genuinely involved in the life of the intellect, were never more than a few weeks away from sheer starvation. But the fact remains that the civilized community, the specialized division of labor that gave free play to the human mind, and the emergence of more urbane cultures rested essentially on the somewhat precarious but fundamental base of revolutionized and systematic agriculture.

Today's contrasts are startling. In the United States, we presently employ a little less than 10 per cent of the population in agriculture and still produce food in quantities that far outrun needs. Starvation is a real and ugly problem in the contemporary world, but it is so more because of our inability to solve economic and distributional problems than because of failures in production. Indeed, most predictions are that, by the turn of the century, we can halve our current allocation of manpower to agriculture and still turn out a comfortable food surplus with only five per cent or less of our population.

Even more significantly, dramatic changes have been registered within the memory of living men in the composition of the American nonfarm labor force. By 1900, farm workers were already outnumbered by those employed outside agriculture, but 57 per cent of this larger group were in the so-called blue-collar occupations. By 1960, blue-collar workers were in the minority. Something new under the sun had been put in irreversible process: A major society, having freed itself from the constraints of a preponderantly agricultural economy, was clearly freeing itself from the constraints of predominantly muscular labor. At the same time, the amount of energy used in the conduct of that society's business had risen—and is rising—at an unprecedented rate.

The late Homi Bhaba, the distinguished Indian physicist and chairman of the first International Conference on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy, recently illustrated the case this way. "Let us," he said, "use the letter

Q to stand for the energy derived from burning 33 billion tons of coal. In the 18.5 centuries after Christ, the total energy consumed averaged less than half a Q per century. But by 1850, the rate had risen to one Q per century. Today, the rate is about 10 Q per century." In other words, about half of all the energy used by men in 2,000 years has been used in the past 100; and well over half of that burned in the past one hundred has been put to work in the past fifty—all with a sharp reduction in the proportion of men toiling with their backs and biceps in our mines and factories.

We are discussing, of course, our breakaway technology, based on what it has become fashionable to call the "knowledge explosion"—the enormous and startlingly sudden increase in the products of intellect. This new expertise of men has enabled us to extract from the earth since 1910 about the same amount of metal that was mined throughout the existence of our species before that very recent date. It has written the entire history of aviation, from the first few minutes aloft over the North Carolina sand dunes to the current man-made satellites, spacecraft, lunar probes, and Mariner rockets that fly close to Mars—all in less than sixty-five years, the age of a man not yet ready for retirement. It has made possible the transplantation of such natural organs as spleens and corneas and created such mechanical and electronic substitutes for living tissues as the artificial kidney and the cardiac pacemaker. In less than three decades, it has released the power of the atom, broken the genetic code, and devised and refined the computer. The computer, in its turn, has made possible systems engineering, taught us a great deal about the ways in which men think through complex problems, and substantially increased our capacity to predict the response of various populations of known background characteristics to a wide range of issues and situations.

In short, through the exercise of intellect, man has radically and with remarkable speed changed the nature of his environment. Yet the mechanism of intellect, the human central nervous system with its intricate cerebral capstone, has not, scientists are agreed, changed in any essential fashion in the last 10,000 years. Our most distinctive attribute, then, is one developed to maximize survival under the primitive conditions of 10 millenia ago, not to cope with the patterns of today's drastically different life. In a very real sense, our brains are better instruments for seeking food, shelter, safety, and comfort than for seeking long-range truths and for apprehending complexities of the kind confronting contemporary men. As Albert Szent-Gyorgyi[3] has pointed out, the business of the individual, from the point of view of nature, is simply that of keeping alive until he has transmitted life; the basic business of the brain is simply that of keeping him alive *under the ancient circumstances within which our nervous systems evolved.* What modern science has done is to thrust into our consideration the fundamental structures and dimensions of the cosmos, with their tremendous forces and speeds, thus revealing (or creating) nothing less than a world in which men must live but with which they were not made to deal.

Even at the sensory level, Szent-Gyorgyi goes on, our nervous systems leave us ill equipped to cope with our age. Like our ancestors, we handle with a skill edged with caution the temperatures known in neolithic times. At 100 degrees centigrade, boiling water commands our respect; but 15 million degrees centigrade, the temperature of an exploding cobalt bomb, is outside both our experience and the capacity of the machinery within our skulls. If we play tennis or go to a football game, we exercise or witness force of essentially the same magnitudes available to our cave-dwelling forebears; but if we learn that a 20-megaton bomb, falling midway between Washington and Baltimore will develop sufficient force to annihilate both great cities, we are confronted by the unimaginable. When we walk or run, we move at roughly the same speeds as men whose identities have long since been lost in the reaches of time. But a television signal, bounced off a satellite, makes us in New York or San Francisco instantaneous eyewitnesses to events in London or Sydney; and today's jet aircraft, to say nothing of tomorrow's supersonic transport, have made no place on the globe more than a day's journey from any other.

Changes in speed have entailed, of course, changes in the meaning of distance. For the most part, men have lived in relatively isolated tribes, clans, or nations, more or less safely separated by distance or such natural barriers as bodies of water or mountain ranges. Because, when they have been in contact with each other, these human aggregates have typically shown at least some competitive tendencies, they have usually formulated two moral codes. One defines acceptable behavior for the individual within his own group; the other regulates his conduct relative to other groups. The two moralities are not only different; they are not infrequently the opposite of one another. Among the Comanche, for example, to kill or rob a member of one's own tribe was a signal crime, whereas virtue and the route to honor, for young men at least, lay precisely in their "counting *coup*" by degrading, robbing, or killing members of other tribes. There are parallels in the rules of modern warfare, where a soldier is equally guilty of a crime for killing a member of his own army and for refusing to kill an enemy. A significant part of our difficulty here is that distance as a protective resource has been essentially eliminated. Atomic submarines slip swiftly beneath the polar icepacks; missiles and bombers arch at speeds close to or beyond that of sound over oceans and mountains and miles that no longer spell security. Our once capacious planet has been miniaturized to a point that all but defies our understanding and that does indeed defy both our age-old concepts of distance and the dual moralities related to distance.

We are thus brought face to face with the alarming hypothesis that, like the heavy armor of the dinosaur, the human nervous system has reached the end of its adaptive usefulness. Have our brains, evolved to meet the contingencies of a primitive world, so transformed the environment that our very survival is threatened? Although men have clearly demonstrated their ability to deal effectively with all *natural* habitats—desert and tundra, temperate zones and tropics—have they, through the processes of intellect, shaped a *synthetic* context with which they cannot cope? Has our quest for food and shelter, safety and comfort, been so successful as to be genocidally self-defeating?

One need not be a confirmed prophet of doom to face this possibility squarely and to admit that there are lines of evidence that are quite consistent with it. Population statistics, for example, properly convey terror in their cold numbers. It is astonishing to realize that about one-fourth of all the people who have ever lived are alive at the present moment. By 1977, we can expect four billion souls to be roaming the earth, representing a doubling in something like forty years. Primarily a consequence of advances in the technologies of medicine and public health, the rates of increase, as is well known, are much higher in developing than in industrialized sectors of the globe, thereby multiplying the incidence of human ignorance, misery, and resentful jealousy. It is no longer enough for the individual citizens of the underdeveloped nations to remain alive until they transmit life—all that nature demands of them. Unless their fecundity can be checked or their standard of living substantially improved (and these two objectives are intimately related), they define a growing burden of intolerable indignity and agony and a growing reservoir of explosive frustration-bred hostility that degrade our accomplishments and intensify the probability of devastating wars.

Nor is the problem restricted to the emergent

quarters of the planet. In the United States, our present population of roughly 200 million is expected to swell to 230 million by 1975 and to 250 million by 1980. Following patterns of differential expansion similar to those in the world at large, this enlargement of our numbers will increase the proportions of our people most affected by poverty and by the inequities we have grafted onto minority status. Given the complexity of these harrowing problems and our slow pace to date in resolving them, we can anticipate a still more fertile soil for strife and conflict within the American community as our count of heads reaches ever upward.

Still other demographic trends are now in motion that imply stressful dislocations in our culture. Within five years, about half our population will be twenty-six or under, and the number of persons over sixty-five will have risen by 50 per cent. Interacting with the rate of social change, this state of affairs is almost sure to widen the gulf between generations. On the one hand, we shall have to meet more difficulties in providing meaningful roles for senior citizens in our society; on the other, it is highly probable that there will be increasing demands for decision-making involvements in politics and matters of social policy on the part of youth, and the sheer mass of young people will sharply revise the tone and character of our historic mores and way of life. One need not restrict one's admiration for modern youngsters or withdraw one's properly placed faith in them to ask a desperately important question: In a world infinitely more complex and technically intricate than any before known, and in view of the recalcitrant fact that the human cortex requires almost two decades to reach full physiological growth, are there grave risks in the assumption of power by those of necessarily limited experience and recently attained maturity? It is genuinely hard to know whether such a query reflects only an old-fogey mentality or cuts near to the bone of a subtle but grave issue intrinsic to our time; responsible men of whatever age, however, will not fail to give it serious consideration.

Although a great deal more can be said about the perils of population growth and demographic change, we must shift now to another line of concern in relation to our troublesome hypothesis. The technology of weaponry is sufficiently familiar to detain us only briefly. We are all aware that the current world stockpile of nuclear arms provides the equivalent of about 20 tons of T.N.T. for the destruction of every inhabitant of the globe. We are also aware that the expertise for the manufacture of bombs and delivery systems is widely and ever more broadly distributed throughout the world's industrialized and industrializing nations. The advent of France and China, different as they are, into the nuclear club makes it abundantly clear that, if they are willing to declare the necessary priorities, countries with relatively low productive capacity can rapidly add to the menace under which virtually the entire race now lives. Even the crushing expense of the competition for nuclear supremacy pales beside the sheer and elemental danger of this great symbol of the human intellect's ability to create conditions that may tragically escape its control. These dark observations about the threat of atomic warfare could readily be extended to developments in biological and chemical warfare. If anything, some of these devices are still more ominous because they demand less costly and less detectible delivery systems. Once again, we are pressed by the thought that we have generated the highly fertile seeds of our own destruction when we realize that it is quite possible today, by quietly and carefully releasing the relevant micro-organisms, to create plagues that would make those of the Middle Ages seem child's play and that could wipe out whole populations by deliberately induced diseases like botulism.

But the pressure of population growth and the dangers of modern military techniques are not all. We stand now at the threshold of a cybernetic age. Automation and computers have been steadily displacing the unskilled in our economic life; they are now beginning to nudge aside the machinist, the engineer, the auditor, the middle-level manager. Borje Langefors[4], the Swedish expert, has put it this way:

> Computers have developed designs that range from airplanes to architecture, from electrical circuits to clothing, from ships' hulls to highways. The results have exhibited the constraints of an experienced human designer's feel for form and esthetics and his canny knowledge of the possibilities and limitations of the production facilities . . . [Soon] the designers will design the designing system which designs the actual object.

To the extent that Dr. Langefors is right—and there is little evidence on the basis of which to argue with him—it seems sure that cybernetic developments will, probably within a generation or two at most, put an end to work as the focus of life for all but the people engaged in activities that are fundamentally creative. In the words of Bernard Muller-Thyme of M.I.T., it is "futile to talk of our ever being able to relieve . . . 'chronic unemployment' . . . There is no amount of retraining of the work force . . . which is going to replace that which has been destroyed by automation." When we remember the degree to which at least Western man has typically equated his self-respect with the economic enterprises that he has called "work," and when we recall the disruptive and distressing social consequences of mass idleness, we once more are abruptly driven to the question of whether our brains have created a world untenable for human beings. The revolutionary facts can neither be wished away nor effectively dispelled by variants on the practice of featherbedding or by pious comments about the virtues of leisure. As a nearly complete way of life for the vast majority of a society of over

a quarter of a *billion* people, leisure is a mode for which there is absolutely no guiding experience in history; and the difficulties are made more stringent by the probability that free time will be most abundantly available to those least equipped to capitalize on it as an opportunity for personal and social growth.

Finally—not because it is the last item that can appropriately be mentioned but because time demands the conclusion of this brief catalog of worries—we must remind ourselves of new trends in biological and behavioral engineering. We are rapidly learning how to manipulate the genetic code, which transmits to the next generation the "instructions" which largely determine its nature and form. Telemetering and computer techniques are already in use for the diagnosis and treatment of a variety of physiological malfunctions and will be greatly refined to a point where they can be used to control mental as well as physical processes in human beings. The problem of personal identity is likely to become complicated by the surgical transplantation of organs: Who am I if I live by virtue of another man's heart beating in my breast and see by virtue of another man's eyes fitted into my sockets? And the boundary between organisms and machines has already been made ambiguous by such devices as the cardiac pacemaker, the electronic device which permits an otherwise defective heart to continue its life-giving business. The day of the android, the being part organism and part machine, may not be far off, when men—or something like men—not only *use* but *become* a submarine, a spaceship, a communications net, etc. In any case, the availability and progressive refinement of chemopsychic drugs, conditioning techniques, and methods of propaganda suggest novel and hugely extended powers of control over human conduct, just as the highly rationalized processes of systems engineering, applied to industrial and governmental management and to other social phenomena, suggest the increasingly efficient regulation of organizational affairs. Under all these conditions, the individual, whose distinctiveness has been our traditional touchstone of value, is likely to get lost in the search for manageable regularities and consistencies that make for orderliness, predictability, and efficiency. Indeed, all of us can cite our own observations that support the belief that this erosion of individuality is already in process. Similarly, the enterprises of biological and behavioral engineering entail the making by the few of decisions which vitally affect the most intimate and personal aspects of life for the many. The hypothesis that the human nervous system, the organ of intellect, has created a world with which it cannot cope on humane terms is not so incredible as our hopes would lead us to believe.

Yet there is a crucial factor that must be apprehended as we attempt to comprehend the potentially dark and destructive possibilities in the sweeping revolution through which we are living. Its nature is indicated by the surprising statistic that almost 90 per cent of all those people who could ever be classified as scientists are alive and working today. At the same time, this huge proportion of trained intelligence accounts for less than one per cent of the world's population. Although the comparison is an extreme one, it raises a significant point: Up to now, the primary concentration of our efforts to cultivate the intellect has been on (a) increasing the *technical* expertise of (b) a relatively small number of our most intellectually talented individuals. Assisted by a larger body of second-echelon technicians and supported by the understandable but sometimes shortsighted enthusiasms of those of us in the general populace, this highly educated minority comprises the architects of our modern transformation. In the crucial spheres of government and public policy, the importance of this group of experts is suggested by the recent comments of Hans Morganthau[5]:

> Scientific arguments have become indispensable weapons in the struggle for power within the executive branch, and the scientific elites have become the providers of these weapons. Starting out as the disinterested purveyors of esoteric knowledge, the scientific elites end up by rationalizing and justifying political interests by dint of their possession of esoteric knowledge.

Our focus is not at all on faulting some of our most finely honed minds: we have no need for whipping boys or sacrificial goats. Rather, our concern is with our having created, collectively and almost unwittingly, a

very few exceptions, such is precisely the operating assumption of graduate schools in discharging this second responsibility. When it is rationalized at all, this equation of trained research competence with teaching ability is explained on the ground that knowledge of one's subject and (occasionally) skill in presenting it clearly and coherently are the bedrock of instruction.

Perhaps they are. There is still room, however, to question the extent to which even these aims are achieved or even deliberately sought in the graduate programs from which college faculties are recruited. Although a number of institutions demand a reasonably comprehensive grasp of their disciplines by graduate students, they almost universally confer their greatest rewards on those who develop a distinctive mastery over some fractional part of their field; and rare is the graduate department that does not judge itself as most successful when a student makes some novel contribution, regardless of its broader significance or triviality, to some highly specialized segment of the domain of knowledge it represents. Intense and narrow specialization rather than comprehensiveness is the *leitmotif* of graduate work. And as for skill in presentation, this goal is honored far more often in the breach than in the observance. For a new faculty member's first lecture to be given to the first class he has ever faced is not only possible but common. If he enjoyed a teaching assistantship as a graduate student, the odds are long that he had only nominal supervision or none; and if he comes from some kind of supervised teaching experience, it is almost sure that it has been strongly oriented toward conventional methods of instruction that have been in vogue since Abelard. The imaginative exceptions—and there are some, which tend to be more institutionally tolerated than enthusiastically approved or emulated—only highlight the modal practice.

And the modal practice is only a symptom of a more basic condition in the graduate school's production of college teachers. The departmental structure, with its regions of subspecialization within departments, which has proved in many ways a sound strategy for scholarship, puts a high premium on departmental identifications. The graduate student in chemistry or French literature typically develops loyalties not to his institution but to his department and to the discipline represented by its faculty members. He finds his models in his particular professors; and he quickly learns that achievement and reward in his chosen field lie not in a concern for students, a responsibly provocative performance as a teacher, or even in a broad and humane commitment to the intellectual life, but in specialization, research productivity, and allegiance to the discipline. However much this guild orientation may contribute to scholarship, it seriously inhibits the investment of intellectual energy in such topics as the different learning dynamics of different categories of undergraduates, the styles of teaching appropriate to the increasing diversity of our student bodies, the nature of the various curriculums suited to the qualities of our contemporary world, etc. When the reinforcements are attached almost exclusively to serving one's discipline, and when one's proper audience has been strongly defined as one's fellow guild members, one finds little incentive for thinking hard and purposefully about the issues that have been discussed here.

We are not, of course, speaking of the publish-or-perish syndrome. That problem is a real one, but it has been much oversimplified and much overplayed. In the first place, it is quite reasonable to argue that the professor who never has anything worth saying to his peers must at least bear the burden of proof that he is worth the attention of his students. More tellingly, for all the talk about publication as the only route to promotion and higher salaries within the academy, the overwhelming proportion of the nation's faculty members publish very little during their careers. Not quite 10 per cent of the professoriate accounts for almost 90 per cent of the books and articles coming from our universities and colleges; and although the data vary a little over time and a little more when broken down by discipline, it appears that close to two-thirds of our Ph.D.'s, in the ten years following their doctorates, publish less than one article beyond their dissertations. These observations suggest that our production of professional scholars is a bit prodigal, entailing the cost of training perhaps excessively large numbers to the doctoral level in order to insure an adequate supply of prolific and technically creative people. In our present context, however, the significance of these figures is somewhat different.

As is well known to students of social phenomena, the members of an organization, a craft, or a profession need not develop, beyond the minimal requirements for membership, the skills of the group in order to interiorize its values. Those, then, who have joined the elite corps of professional scholars by surviving the initiatory rites of the graduate school and by winning the badge of acceptance defined by an advanced degree may or may not pursue active research careers; with a very high degree of probability, they will honor what research workers honor, share the norms of investigators, and prize most fully relationships with other professional scholars. Their conversation is likely to be rich in specialists' shop-talk; their conception of a "good" academic department is modeled after some notion of practices attributed to Harvard, Berkeley, or Chicago; they regard the teaching of graduate students as a higher and more rewarding order of business than the teaching of undergraduates, and they tend to evaluate students essentially according to their conventionally indexed academic abilities and their disposition to achieve at high levels in academically conventional ways.

These frequently remarked and modal characteristics of the professoriate are listed not at all by way of criticism but only to make a central point: whatever else it does—and it is completely clear that it serves a number of admirable and quite necessary functions—the American graduate school serves as a highly effective indoctrination station for future faculty members. Diverse and individual as college professors sturdily are, there are few of them who do not harbor at least the occasional or secret fantasy, conceived if not born in their graduate school experience, of holding a research chair in one of the country's top half-dozen universities. This inbred longing symbolizes the complex of factors that accounts for their profound conservatism about educational matters, their reluctance to deal directly with the problems posed by the impact of our revolutionary times on our youth, and their general unwillingness to think of institutions for undergraduates as socialization agencies, as a societal means for aiding a new generation to invent effectively humane ways to cope with this new world it has inherited.

Yet, if there is any merit in the way that we have read the nature of that new world, there is an imperative need to supplement our traditions in higher education of intellectual elites and specialized professionals with something somewhat different but equally important and equally excellent. That "something somewhat different" includes a recasting in contemporary terms of our ideas of liberal education, a radical rethinking of the humanizing role of our colleges and universities in the largely synthetic environment that our intellectual achievements have moulded, a new focus on the process of learning that pays proper heed to the increasing range of individual differences among students, and a revision of our academic reward system to provide reinforcements, including self-esteem and stimulating colleagueship, for the teacher that are comparable to those for the investigator. If our reward system is to be so revised, however, it is essential that we be reasonably clear about the options that promise more than our present arrangement for the production of college instructors. One such option may be a graduate program that demands of the would-be professor a broad

grasp of a field of study *and* of its interrelationships with other domains of knowledge, that requires him to develop some informed perspective on the changing world in which he is to pursue his career, and that provides him with a sampling of instructional experiences that encourage his critical and imaginative attention to the nature of the teaching act and the ways in which it may facilitate learning.

Whether or not such a program is looked on with favor, the task of more precisely defining and creatively resolving the problems of our "something somewhat different" should be begun at once. The stakes are too high to justify delays. In a society so complex that elites must manage it, there are only three alternatives to eventual resentment and rebellion. The citizenry can be so fed with bread and circuses that it is docile; it can be controlled and manipulated through either the Huxleyan subtleties of *Brave New World* or the Orwellian intimidations of *1984*, or it can be sufficiently educated to participate meaningfully in the making of crucial decisions. Only the last squares with the heritage of American ideals, and it is the preservation of that heritage in contemporary terms that we are concerned with here.

In beginning this large and taxing work, although there is no reason to exclude any interested party, it may be well to consider new alignments among institutions that can profitably make common cause. Community colleges, the less affluent schools, the predominantly Negro colleges, and the newly established state universities, particularly those in urban areas, could well explore their overlapping problems and work out new networks of cooperation and mutual aid. The probability of change in such institutions should be greater than in places more encrusted by tradition and set in their ways by both history and present personnel. Further, it is there that the educational action is; in older schools with high standards of admission, fine libraries, and a distinctive climate of learning, the relatively homogeneous and highly selected students are likely to achieve a reasonably relevant education if they are simply not too seriously interfered with. In the institutions identified here, most students must be taught and taught well—taught to learn effectively, taught to find joy and meaning in learning, taught to find importance and potency in themselves as members of society, and taught to create ways of thinking about themselves and their world that will make this great cultural discontinuity through which we are living a memorably constructive epoch in the troubled but proud pageant of humankind. How to teach and how to develop the teachers to serve such a purpose define our basic quest. If the search is conducted with sufficient energy, zest, and boldness, it is quite possible that, just as the Ivy League and some of our now great state universities have become bellwethers with respect to elitist educational practice, other categories of institutions can, through their innovations, exercise a deeply needed leadership along somewhat different lines.

Perhaps an early step should involve a series of major conferences in which the principal issues are formulated in refined terms, a set of carefully drawn up recommendations is prepared for consideration by our graduate schools, and the vehicles are identified by which the chief sources of support, both public and private, for higher education in the United States can be informed of the nature and urgency of the concerns shared among the relevant institutions and affecting such large numbers of our increasing and increasingly diverse students. Among other things, few moves could be more encouraging to our youth, who have reacted to the divorce, as it is perceived from the student's side of the podium, between the academy and the revolutionary outside world by a national dropout rate that approaches a shocking 50 per cent, by demonstrations that are sometimes as touchingly ineffectual as they are annoyingly disruptive, and by a barrage of criticisms and suggestions that, in many instances, well deserve a responsive hearing. Such a step should also be heartening to some of our leading administrators, whose perceptiveness and imaginative willingness to key their institutions more closely to the tenor of modern times are often frustrated by the educational elitism of their otherwise liberal and innovative faculties.

As we hurtle toward the twenty-first century, it is obvious that we must keep the cutting edge of the sword of intellect, our only weapon against both ignorance and inhumanity, finely ground and keen. We have ample room and crucial need for elites of the mind. But we must also keep the entire blade of that sword well tempered by a more extended, more humane, and more diverse educational experience than has ever before been mad available. Otherwise, our society sunders, and we admit that men have become anachronisms in a synthetic world of their own brains' creation.

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SOCIAL CHANGE AND THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

By Philip M. Hauser, Professor of Sociology
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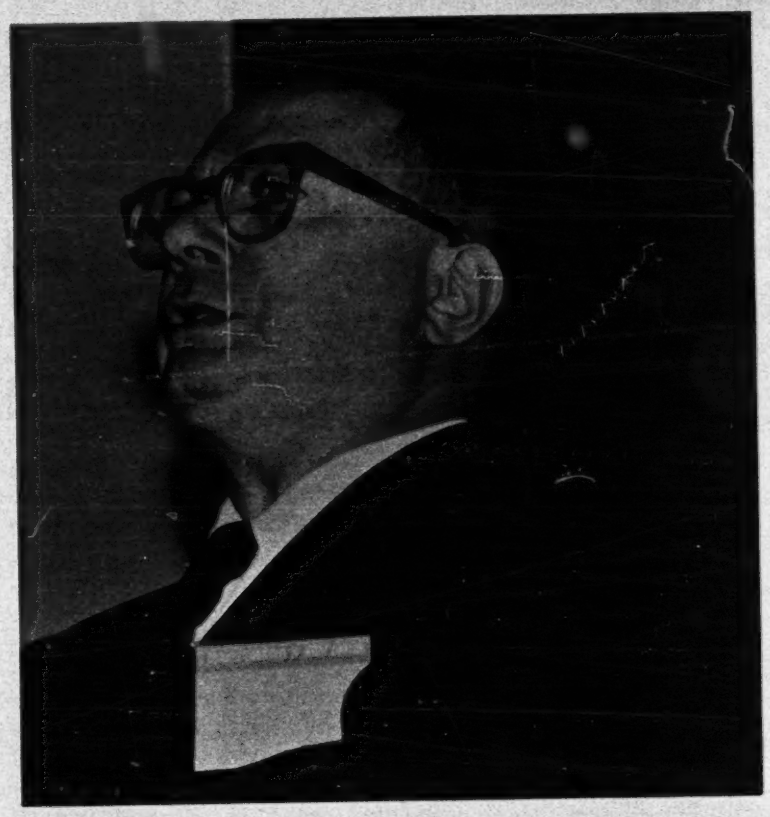


The junior college, in the contemporary scene, is confronted with unprecedented challenge and opportunity. The challenge is presented by four major social changes: first, the accelerating urbanization and metropolitanization of American society; second, the collapse of public school education in the United States; third, the entrance of the Negro American and other underprivileged groups to the main stream of American life—metropolitan America; and fourth, the changing age structure by reason of the postwar baby boom. The opportunity lies in the potential of the junior college, or more appropriately the community college, to meet the new needs and to help resolve the many problems propagated by these changes.

The Metropolitanization of American Society: In 1790, there were less than 4 million persons in this then fledgling nation. Of these, 95 per cent lived in rural areas—on farms or in places having fewer than 2,500 people. Only 5 per cent lived in urban places of which there were only twenty-four in the entire nation. Only two of these urban places, New York and Philadelphia, had populations in excess of 25,000. In short, the United States at the writing of the federal Constitution and, indeed, most of the state constituions for which it was the prototype, was an agrarian society—with agrarian patterns not only of economic activity and organization but, also, agrarian modes of thought and values, and agrarian forms of governmental structure—federal, state, and local.

In the brief period of 160 years between the first and our seventeenth decennial censuses, the population of the United States doubled five times to reach a total, by 1950, of over 150 million. World War II and its postwar cold-war aftermath generated a marriage and baby boom unprecedented in their magnitude and duration. In consequence, by 1960, the population of this country totalled almost 180 million. At the present time (in March 1967) we have an officially estimated population of about 198 million and an actual population with minimum allowance for census underenumeration of well over 200 million.

The explosive population increase was accompanied by dramatic population redistribution. By 1960, 70 per cent of the American people lived in urban places which had increased to a total of 6,041. Furthermore, by 1960, 63 per cent of the population lived in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (S.M.S.A.'s) as defined by the federal government—central cities of 50,000 or more persons and the counties in which these are located.

With the increased concentration of the American people into ever larger agglomerations new problems of many kinds were precipitated including physical problems, cultural and human problems, and political and governmental problems. The problems were the product of the rapidity with which the transition occurred from agrarian living to urbanism and metropolitanism as a way of life; and of the new personal and social needs generated by agglomerative living.

The essential perspective which emerges from these considerations may be highlighted by observing that the United States will not until the next census, in 1970, have completed its first half century as an urban nation—for it was not until 1920 that more than half of the population lived in urban places. Moreover, during this fifty-year period we shall have almost doubled again, increasing from about 106 million in 1920 to some 206 million by 1970.

It should, therefore, not be too surprising that the nation is still experiencing frictions in the transition from rural to urban living. Furthermore, the process of rapid population growth and urbanization and metropolitanization is by no means yet complete. In the eighteen years between 1967 and 1985, even with considerably reduced fertility, the country is likely to increase in total population by over 60 million persons. And of this increment, all (or more with continued rural decline) is likely to occur in urban places, over 80 per cent is likely to be concentrated in S.M.S.A.'s, and perhaps 50 per cent in large S.M.S.A.'s (1 million or more).

The Collapse of Public School Education: It is an ironic fact that the Negro revolt has spawned an educational revolt that is sweeping metropolitan United States. For in disclosing the shocking inadequacies of the public school education available to the Negro child in the inner zones of our central cities, the Negro has, as a by-product, also laid bare the sad state of public education available to the white city child. It is undeniable that the Negro child in the inner city has access only to a third or fourth rate education, as compared with the public school educational opportunities of the privileged suburban child. By the same standard, it is also undeniable that the white child in the central cities of our metropolitan areas has access only to a second and third rate education.

What has happened to education in the nation which gives so much lip-service to its glories as the door to opportunity for all? Certainly, over the course of our national history, education has been the chief instrumentality by means of which the U.S. has made its major contributions, in my judgment, to the history of man, namely, the demonstration that unity could be achieved in a nation comprising diverse ethnic and racial stocks; and the demonstration that each person, no matter how humble his origin, could in our highly mobile social system, rise

to whatever economic, social and political level that his own capabilities permitted. What has happened to produce the present day deficiencies in our educational system?

The answer is to be found in the cumulative effects of five calamitous developments. These are:

1. The metropolitanization of the nation, producing huge population and economic agglomerations characterized by political fragmentation and inequalities in the distribution within the metropolitan area of need for education and ability to pay for it

2. The failure of state legislatures to meet their responsibility for giving support to urban education as one element in their callous neglect of urban needs in general

3. The structural and functional obsolescence of boards of education throughout the land, and the often ill-defined relationships between the board, on the one hand, and general superintendents of schools, on the other

4. The failure of the schools to keep abreast of twentieth century educational requirements and especially those in our metropolitan areas subjected to huge in-migration of rural populations, both white and Negro, ill-prepared for metropolitanism as a way of life

5. The apathy and complacency of the general public more concerned with holding down the cost of education than with the quality of education available for their children.

As a result of the conjoint play of these factors, public school education in our central cities and especially in their inner zones has become a national disgrace. For the first time in our national history, education is failing adequately to prepare a whole generation of urban Americans, and especially the culturally deprived ones, for the increasingly complex world of tomorrow. The presumed tax savings on education are being converted into huge tax expenditures for dealing with dropouts, delinquency and crime, unemployment, and health and welfare programs. As a nation we present the sorry spectacle of spending only half as much and less per child for public school education in our central cities as in our better suburbs; and many times as much, huge amounts, for mopping up the mess precipitated by the failure of our educational system.

It is the vacuum in state and local educational leadership which has drawn the federal government into the public school educational situation, just as similar vacuums in local responsibility and leadership have drawn the federal government into public housing, urban renewal, air and water pollution, mass transit, and civil rights. It is a sad commentary on human intelligence that the same voices who have screamed the loudest about "states rights" and "local control" of education over the years and who are still screaming these slogans, are the very agents who have drawn the federal government even deeper into local affairs.

The present metropolitan educational crises, exacerbated by the problems of civil rights including integration, requires a major national effort for remediation—an effort as yet barely begun.

The Entrance of the Negro American into Metropolitan America: When the first census of population was taken in 1790, there were some 3.9 million persons in this country. Of these, 3.2 million were white and 757,000 were Negro. By that time, Negroes had resided in the colonies for about 175 years as the indentured servants or property of their white slave-owner masters. At the first census, they constituted almost one-fifth (19.3 per cent) of the total population.

Negroes remained about one-fifth of the national total until 1810. From that date to 1930, they became a declining proportion of the population as slave importation ceased and white immigration continued. By 1930, Negroes had decreased to less than one-tenth of the national total (9.7 per cent). Since 1940, the growth rate of the Negro population has exceeded that of the white; thus, by 1960, Negroes constituted slightly above one-tenth (10.6 per cent) of the total population. In fact, their absolute numbers had risen to 4.4 million by the onset of the Civil War, to 8.8 million by the turn of the century, and to 18.9 million by the eighteenth decennial census of population in 1960.

In 1790, 91 per cent of the Negroes lived in the South. This regional concentration of Negroes had not changed appreciably by 1910, as recorded in the last census taken before World War I (89 per cent). The first large internal migratory flow of Negroes from the South began during World War I. It was prompted by the combination of need for labor to man the expanding industrial plants of the North, as the United States served as the arsenal for the Allied Powers, and the changing economy of the South which, with the diversification of agriculture and the delayed impact of the industrial revolution, was freeing the Negro from the soil. The flow of Negroes from the South to the North and West continued thereafter, abating somewhat during the depression thirties and accelerating greatly during World War II and its aftermath. In consequence, the proportion of all Negroes living in the North and West almost quadrupled from 1910 to 1960, rising from 11 to 40 per cent.

Negro internal migratory flows effected shifts not only in their regional distribution but, even more important, also in their distribution within urban, rural, and metropolitan areas. In 1910, before large migratory streams of Negroes left the South, 73 per cent of the Negroes in the nation, as compared with 52 per cent of the whites, lived in rural areas, that is, on farms and in areas with fewer than 2,500 inhabitants. By 1960, the distribution of Negroes by urban-rural residence had become completely reversed, with 73 per cent of the Negro population residing in urban areas. Thus, within a period of fifty years, less than a lifetime, the Negro has been transformed from a predominantly rural to a predominantly urban resident. In fact, in 1960, Negroes were more highly urbanized than whites, 70 per cent of whom resided in urban areas.

The great increase in the concentration of Negroes is even more dramatically revealed by analysis of their metropolitanization. In 1910, only 29 per cent of Negroes lived in S.M.S.A.'s. By 1960, the concentration of Negroes in S.M.S.A.'s had increased to 65 per cent. Between 1920 and 1940, Negroes in S.M.S.A.'s increased by 65 per cent as compared with 36 per cent for whites; and, between 1940 and 1960, Negroes in metropolitan areas more than doubled, increasing by 109 per cent, as compared with 50 per cent for whites.

Even more striking than the increase of Negroes in metropolitan areas is their concentration in the central cities of these areas. Between 1910 and 1920, the Negro population in central cities of metropolitan areas increased by 40 per cent; between 1920 and 1940, by 83 per cent; and between 1940 and 1960, by 123 per cent. Hence, by 1960, 51 per cent of all Negroes in the United States lived in the central cities of S.M.S.A.'s. Of all Negroes resident in metropolitan areas, 80 per cent lived in central cities. There was a much higher concentration of Negroes in metropolitan areas and in their central cities in the North and West than in the South. In 1960, of all Negroes in the North, 93 per cent were in S.M.S.A.'s and 79 per cent in the central cities; and in the West 93 per cent in S.M.S.A.'s and 67 per cent in central cities. In the South, however, 46 per cent of all Negro residents lived in S.M.S.A.'s and 34 per cent in central cities. Finally, it must be observed that Negroes are disproportionately concentrated in the large S.M.S.A.'s and especially in their central cities. The twenty-four S.M.S.A.'s with 1 million or more persons in 1960 contained 38 per cent of the total Negro population, and their central cities, 31 per cent. Comparable figures for whites are 34 and 15 per cent.

Negroes, as had white immigrant groups before them, found their ports of entry to cities in the inner slum

areas, where they lived in enclaves or ghettos. The process of settlement has been well described both for white ethnic immigrants and the Negro. The residential patterns and initial stages of urban settlement of both groups were characterized by segregation, but there were at least two important differences. First, the Negroes were more highly segregated than white ethnic groups; and, second, Negro segregation has, in general, increased rather than decreased over time.

Other categories of the population, also underprivileged, have relatively recently entered metropolitan United States. Appalachian whites (hillbillies), American Indians, Puerto Ricans, Mexicans and recent immigrants, in general, have also experienced and created many acute problems by reason of relatively recent entrance to metropolitan America, together with inadequate preparation for urban living. Most of these newcomers, like the Negro, are characterized by insufficient education and poverty. They along with other elements of "the poor," who in total number some 7.2 million families with 34.6 million persons including unrelated individuals constitute a special challenge to education.

The Changing Age Structure: The upsurge in national population growth since demobilization after World War II has, of course, profoundly affected almost every aspect of life in this nation. Its impact has been particularly significant upon education as tidal waves of postwar babies inundated the elementary schools during the 1950's and are flooding high schools and colleges during the 1960's. Changes in the size of the school age population, retrospectively and prospectively, together with the trends in school enrollment, reveal the magnitude of the impact on the schools of our postwar population boom.

Between 1940 and 1950 youngsters of elementary school age, five to fourteen, increased by some 1.9 million or 8.5 per cent. In contrast, this same age group increased by 11.1 million or 46 per cent during the 1950's. This is why enrollment in elementary school (kindergarten through eighth grade) increased by 1.6 million or 5.1 per cent during the 1940's, and by 10.2 million or 46 per cent during the 1950's.

Persons roughly of high school age, fifteen to ninteen, reflecting the low birth rate of the depression 1930's, decreased by 1.7 million or 13 per cent during the 1940's. In contrast, this age group increased by 2.5 million or 24 per cent during the 1950's. In consequence, high school enrollment decreased by almost 700,000 or 9.5 per cent during the 1940's; but it increased by 3.1 million or 49 per cent during the 1950's by reason of the combined effect of the changing age structure and increasing enrollment rates.

During the 1960's, youngsters of elementary school age are increasing by about 5.8 million or 16.4 per cent, and youngsters of high school age by about 5.7 million or 43 per cent. In the 1970's, by reason of the birth rate changes indicated, the former may increase by an additional 6 million or about 15 per cent, and the latter by an additional 2 million or 10 per cent. As a result of these age structure changes and rising enrollment rates, elementary school enrollment during the 1960's is increasing by 4.4 million or 14 per cent; and high school enrollment by 5.2 million or 55 per cent. During the 1970's elementary school enrollment may go up by some 5 million or 14 per cent, and high school enrollment by some 784,000 or 5 per cent. The relative plateauing of enrollment in the 1970's reflects, of course, the earlier plateau in fertility rates.

The tremendous increase in elementary and high school enrollment effected by the upsurge in population growth may be summarized in examination of changes which have occurred or are projected between 1940 and 1980. During these forty years youngsters five to fourteen years of age will have increased by 24.9 million, more than a doubling. Elementary school enrollment will have increased by almost 21 million during the same period—also a doubling. Youth fifteen to nineteen years of age between 1940 and 1980 will have increased 8.6 million, an increase of more than two thirds. High school enrollment over the same period will have increased by 8.6 million and will have more than doubled because of increased enrollment rates as well as population growth.

By 1980 then, the projections show a total elementary and secondary school enrollment of 57.5 million students, of which 41.8 million would be at the elementary level and 15.7 million at the high school level.

The situation is similar in respect to higher education. Persons twenty to twenty-four years of age, to use the convenient census age category, increased by only 34,000 in the 1940's, decreased by 820,000 in the 1950's, and are increasing by 6.3 million during the 1960's. This age group may increase by an additional 3.5 million in the 1970's. These age changes, together with increased higher education enrollment rates, are or will be reflected in higher education enrollment.

From a college and university enrollment of 1.5 million in 1940, students in higher education increased to almost 2.7 million in 1950, to 3.2 million in 1960, and to 5.7 million in 1965. It is projected that enrollment in colleges and universities will reach 7 million by 1970, and 8.8 million by 1980. Thus, enrollment in higher education will have almost tripled between 1950 and 1970.

The great increase in population of school age and in school enrollment have had deleterious consequences. On the adverse side there can be no question but that the bulge in enrollment has operated to depreciate the quality of education. It has not been possible to increase school facilities and experienced teachers at rates matching population growth and increased enrollment. Moreover,

it may be observed that the most serious effects on the quality of education in the secondary schools and in higher education are still to be experienced.

Projections of future community college enrollment would not be meaningful because older as well as college-age population constitute potential enrollees. It is clear, however, that community colleges face enormous increases in enrollment by reason of the combined effects of the changing age structure and enrollment trend.

The Role of the Community College: The evolution of the community college may be traced to the new needs and problems generated by the social changes outlined. The role of community colleges has necessarily changed and will continue to change to meet changing requirements. The functions of the community college as Medsker, among others has noted, are "many and varied." It serves as a "democratizing agent" by making higher education available to a much wider spectrum of high school graduates and older persons including those without secondary school education. It offers a wide range of programs so that it can prepare some students for the world of work and others for transfer to university degree programs. It helps to provide many community services including opportunity for informal adult education, for counseling and guidance, and for developmental programs to help meet the challenge of increased leisure.

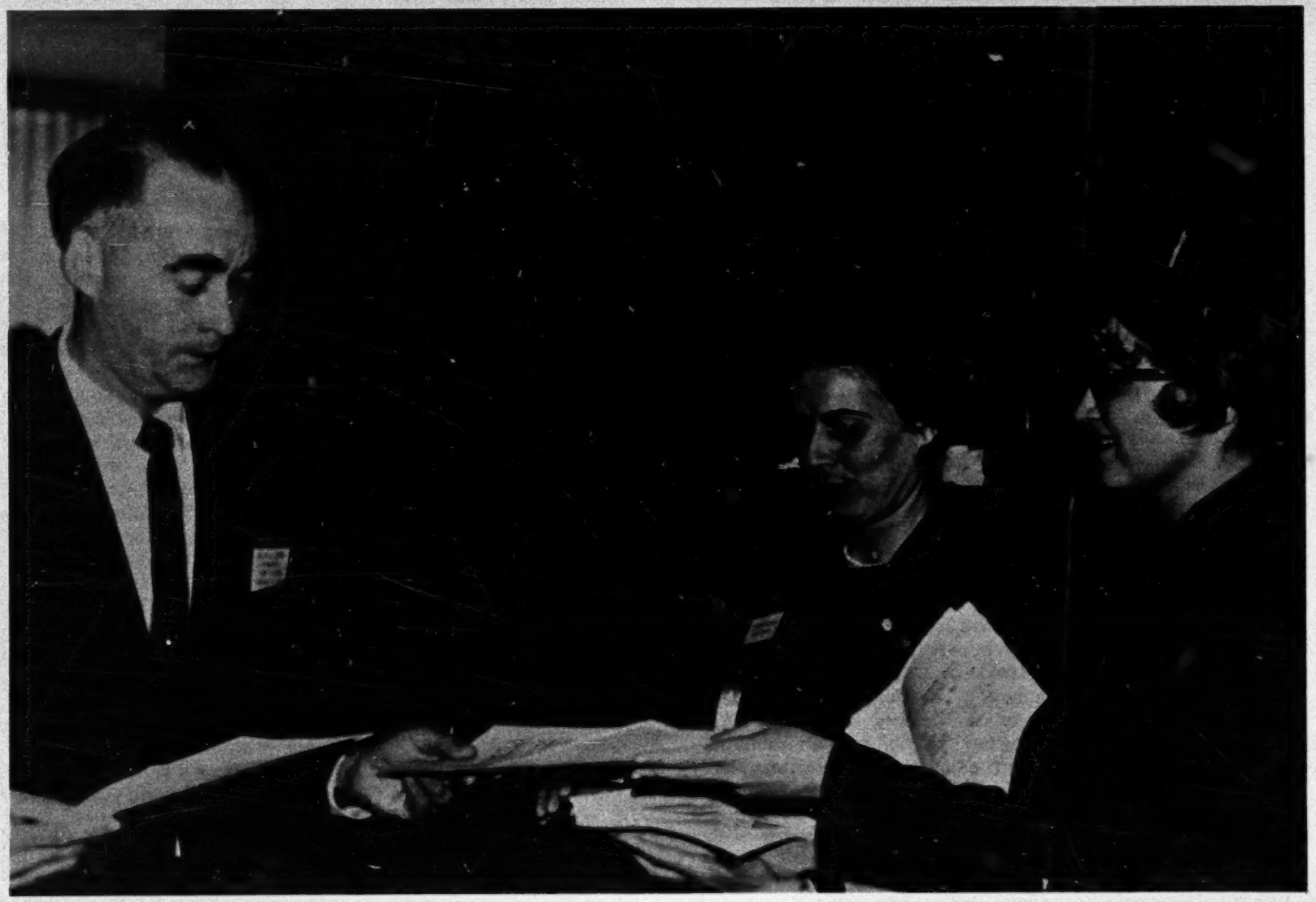
The community college will undoubtedly continue to serve as a bridge between the secondary school and the four-year college or university. But it will increasingly have new and additional functions to perform. Among these the more important may be the following:

1. The development of curriculums and programs for producing a variety of paraprofessional personnel in a variety and growing number of fields—engineering, education, science, the services, etc.

2. The provision of massive programs of remediation for the Negro American and other underprivileged minority groups for whom the public schools have failed to provide the necessary basic skills, saleable skills, and citizenship skills

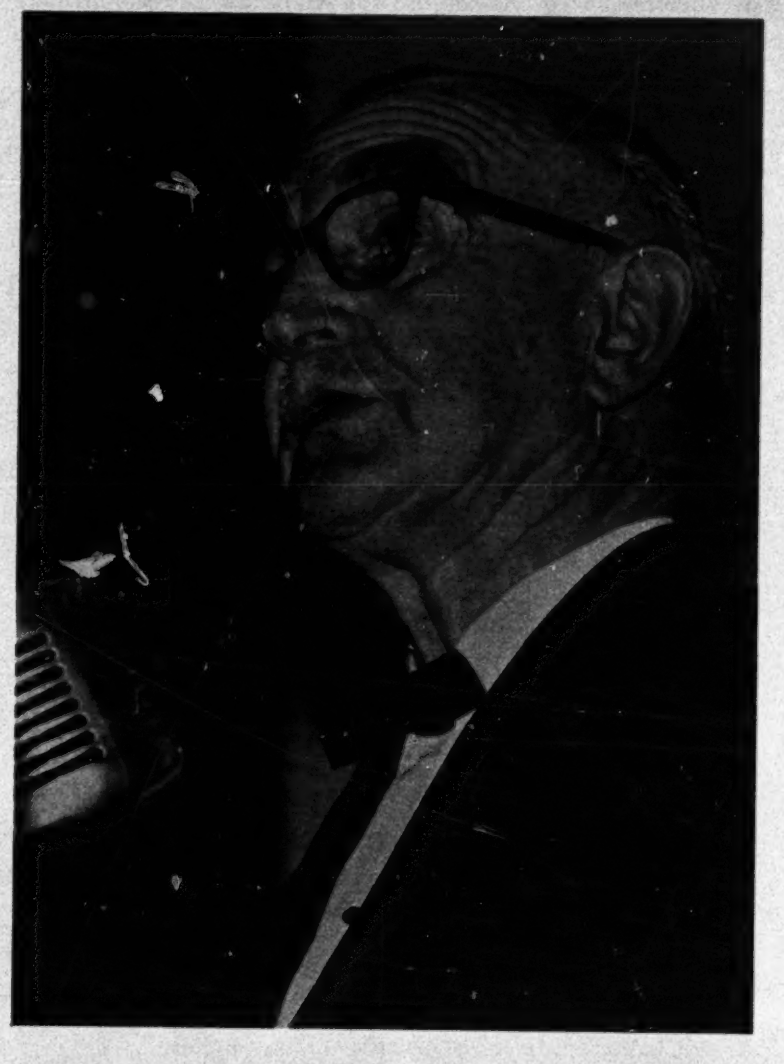
3. The development of continuing programs, in cooperation with industry, in occupational retraining and the updating of obsolescent occupational skills; the community college could conceivably become the major instrumentality in fusing the worlds of education and work into a continuous interrelated activity

4. The development of greatly broadened programs of adult education, formal and informal, to help to update the general public to the rapidly changing social order; the tempo of social change is likely to accelerate rather than to diminish and the need increase, therefore, for helping the general public to keep up with, and to adapt to, a changing society.



A TIME TO EVERY PURPOSE

By Wayne Morse
U. S. Senator
State of Oregon



As chairman of the Education Subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, I am particularly pleased to see the physical evidence of the growth and vitality which characterizes your organization. The junior and community college ideal which you embody as an organization has deep roots in the American academic tradition since you are devoted in equal measure to the liberal arts, those studies worthy of a free man, and to those arts of equal dignity and worth which were described in the Morrill Land Grant charter as the mechanic arts. The fusion of these two complementary movements in your institutions are responsible, in my judgment, for the vigor of your operations and for the support you have engendered in the Congress for those operations.

If I am not mistaken, in every great statute enacted in the 1960's to date, the contribution of your program to the education of young Americans has been recognized by the Congress. Explicit note has been taken to make sure that your institutions, your programs, and your student bodies can benefit under the various provisions of the public laws, such as the Morse-Perkins Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Morse-Green Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963, the Morse-Green Higher Education Act of 1965, the Morse-Powell National Defense Education Act Amendments of 1964, the Morse-Perkins Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and even the Morse-Brademas International Education Act of 1966.

In each of these statutes and as well the 1966 Higher Education Amendments Act and the Elementary and Secondary Education Amendments Act of 1966, my subcommittee has sought the counsel of your officers and your members. In our seminar sessions there has been free and open give and take. Your evidence has been weighed with care in our executive sessions and your imprint is on the statutes.

If I may digress for a moment at this juncture to say in public what I have many times said in private with regard to educational legislation of the last four years. On the Senate side, at least, I can speak with conviction and authority. It has been legislation which was, in the best sense of the word, bi-partisan. In subcommittee and in full committee we have argued and differed over details, but we have been united on the floor and in conference in our determination to get good legislation adopted.

This has been due to the fact that we have agreed upon our objectives, and our variances in recommendations have been limited to the improvement and refinement of the proposals which come to us from our colleagues and the Administration.

We have not always bought unchanged the Administration proposals. Many of us believe and have acted on our belief that Washington, D. C., has no monopoly upon wisdom in the field of education legislation. Many of us feel quite strongly that initiatives for programs should arise from and be modified by the educational community of this nation. It is the community of which your organization is an important constituent.

Let me illustrate my point with a specific instance. As you may know, Public Law 874, which provides grants to defray operation and maintenance costs of educational programs to local educational agencies is based upon a formula which takes into account the number of children whose parents live or work on federal property and the per pupil expenditure of the state. Most of these payments go to local elementary and secondary school districts. However the act itself has in it that such payments can be made to local educational agencies which provide free public education. Since some states, like California, have made provision for free tuition in their junior and community colleges, these institutions, as in California, have received such payments. In fiscal year 1967 for California, some $2.45 million will be received by junior and community colleges for operational costs. Since 1950, $15 million has been received from this source. Construction money under P. L. 815, the companion measure to P. L. 874, since 1950, has amounted to an additional $3 to 4 million and it was used to help provide a part of the physical facilities of California junior colleges. No less than eleven junior college districts qualified for such aid in 1965 and 1966.

Among the changes proposed by the administration to P. L. 874 was one which would have limited such assistance to elementary and secondary schools only, thus removing a revenue source for qualifying junior colleges in this state.

In subcommittee members of the minority party, whose states were not affected, pointed out that Senators Murphy and Kuchel were concerned over the proposals. My guess is that many of the California junior college

presidents had presented to the two California Senators a very convincing case for the retention of the language. Senator Murphy is a respected member of the minority who serves on the full committee. In my judgment, he made such a powerful case for the retention of this benefit that I urged our committee to accept an amendment to the administration proposal in this area. We later used these arguments to good effect in our conference with the House and were successful in upholding the Senate position.

I mention this incident for a purpose. I think it demonstates that our subcommittee tries to meet problems which arise on the basis of the merits of proposals rather than on the basis of party vote roll calls. In this instance I felt, and I am sure in this I was joined by many, that we should encourage the states to extend the principle of free public education beyond the high school level. At the least, we should not discourage those states which have had the vision to move ahead in this area, by imposing upon them financial stringencies whose end result would have been either the denial of higher educational opportunity to qualified Americans, or an increase in local or state taxes.

So I honor George Murphy for the position he took on this issue, and I congratulate those junior college presidents and deans who took the time and the trouble to prepare the case for their Senators to present.

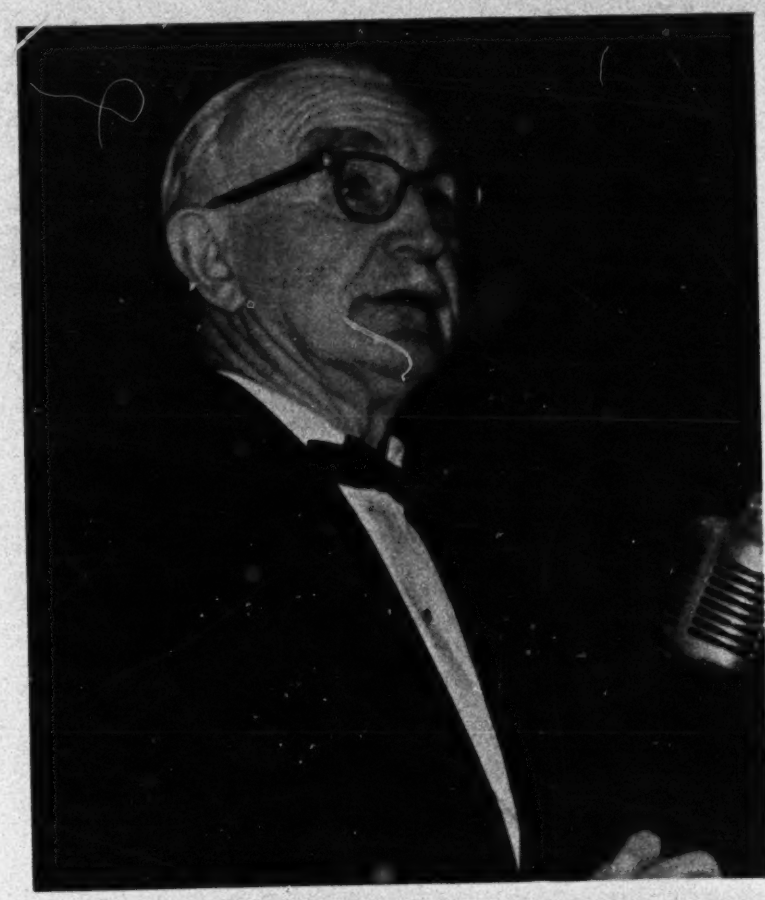
Discussion of this particular leads me to develop with you the theme of this address. You may have recognized that my text was taken from one of the wisdom books of the Old Testament. It may be found as part of the first verse of chapter 3 of the Book of Ecclesiastes and in full it reads: "To everything there is a season, and a time to every purpose under heaven."

We know that in the past decade there has been a net increase of 12 million boys and girls enrolled in our elementary and secondary schools. I have it on the authority of a report issued by Senator Hickenlooper for the Republican Senatorial Policy Committee last August that soon, in the next few years, more teachers than farmers will be voters. Finally, the Congress has looked with increasing favor in the past few years upon assistance to the junior and community college movement.

This, then, would seem to be the time for you to assess your needs now and for the decades to come. In doing so, it would be my hope, and my earnest counsel to you, that you seek the support of other segments of the higher education community for those provisions of additional legislation, federal and state, you wish to have enacted. It is still true that in unity there is strength. If you can conscientiously support the efforts of the graduate schools and your four-year counterparts to achieve solutions to their problems, then it seems to me you have established a claim on them to support your objectives.

Each sector of higher education shares certain characteristics. Each has concern for the development and maturation of the student through the provision of skills, the formation of attitudes and philosophies of social behavior, the unceasing search for truth as it is given to man to discover the truth. As importantly it shares the common heritage of a profession and a discipline which stretches from the Stoa of Athens, the schools and synagogues of Jerusalem, the colonnades of the Roman law courts, through the gothic arches of the medieval universities of Siena, Paris, and Oxford. It reaches to the new schools of today which are springing up as oases in the former deserts of learning here and overseas, and it provides for a basis of unity of action.

American higher education has a proud tradition of free inquiry. Its hallmark is an attitude of questioning. The weapons of thought and rationality it wields are sharp and penetrating. Who is it that finally assesses the men of power?—the historian through a footnote. Who is it that transforms a culture and creates a new civiliza-



tion? The scientist, the inventor, the technician. An Edison or a Steinmetz, a Nobel laureate, a political theorist such as Augustine, Aquinas, Locke, or a sociologist such as Weber, Marx, or Veblen, these are the men whose ideas, right or wrong, have, for better or for worse, formed our human condition in the last half of the twentieth century. The matrix from which such men emerge is the school. The insights provided in a lecture, in the laboratory, or in the shop can be the spark which ignites the mind of the student to produce a blaze which can illuminate or burn his world.

Because each of you, with your associates, is engaged in this most rewarding and difficult endeavor for all of our people, it seems to me that you have a responsibility to foster, to maintain, and to transmit to your successors the accumulated wisdom of all of your predecessors.

This will force you into opposing, perhaps well-meaning, but certainly uninformed, attempts to gain short range advantages, political and economic, which are based upon threadbare and outworn systems of thought. You are dedicated to the search for truth. Never palter with nor compromise your integrity. Advocate what you regard as essential to the fulfillment of your mission.

There is no greater social and economic waste, in my judgment, than the deferral or denial of educational opportunity to the more than 55 million Americans who are now enrolled in educational institutions from preschool through postdoctoral study.

"Politics" can be a word with pejorative connotations. I call upon you to be educational statesmen who will draw the issues clearly and pose to the people of our democracy the alternatives which could flow from the adoption of what you believe to be misguided policies affecting education. Place your confidence in the good sense of the public. The people, if informed, will not fail you.

There are bound, however, to be temporary setbacks. When these occur, they should be considered as stimulants to encourage you to do better in the next round.

If, however, after you have exhausted the remedies of rational appeal and analysis to no avail, when you find that the political climate of your locality will not permit you to function effectively in your educational capacity because of restrictions placed upon your access to, and your dissemination of, what you believe to be intellectually sound, then you can have recourse, as a last resort, to the unanswerable weapon of the professional. You can withdraw, as did the plebs of Rome and the dons and students who founded Cambridge, to repair to climes where your work is honored and your presence welcomed.

It is a step not to be taken lightly without considered reflection, but it is a course open to honorable men and women who are dedicated to the service of their fellow men.

America benefitted immeasurably from the shortsightedness of the European totalitarian regimes which proscribed other than official dogma. The teachers and scholars who came to us more than a century ago and later in the 1930's have enriched beyond counting our national intellectual resources. God grant that such a situation will never arise in this country which could so force such a mass migration of talent. I cannot believe that so foul a weed could be nurtured in the garden of democracy.

But the provocations need not be so extreme as this to justify your withdrawal. Expenditures which are essential, if deferred, can create an irreparable loss. The youngster who drops from school because of financial pressures has lost educational time which can never be recovered. The state and the nation have lost a part of the return from taxes upon his income over his lifetime of earnings because he is not able to receive the financial return from salaries and wages that innate capacities, if developed through education, could have earned for him. If needed school construction is delayed, because of budget blue-penciling in an effort to present a pretty fiscal picture, a whole school generation of students is educationally shortchanged. It is a pennywise practice. We need fiscal farsightedness, not money myopia, when it comes to meeting the educational needs of our citizens.

It will be said that the emergency is a temporary one. That argument was used too successfuly during World War II with the result that the physical plant of American education has been blighted ever since. We are paying, and will continue to pay a very high price, for that "temporary" postponement of social expenditure. That extra 12 million children added in less than a decade to our elementary and secondary rolls will soon be clamoring in ever-increasing numbers at your doors. Unless you want to echo the ill-fated innkeeper who achieved immortality by saying that there is no room at the inn, your needs must speak out strongly in defense of your convictions. There is a time to every purpose; now is the time for you to speak in this area.

It will be said by some that the state and local governments cannot afford to pay the costs of adequate school housing, decent salary scales, modern equipment in the classroom and the lab. In part this is a correct assessment. The federal government has through the Congress, recognized the partial validity of this assertion and in statute after statute it has provided partial reliefs.

But since we know that a temptation will be created to permit the federal funds to supplant rather than to supplement state and local expenditures, in a great many of these statutes there has been incorporated a "maintenance of effort" clause. I mention it now because I think that the taxpaying citizens should know that budgetary efforts to cut back on educational expenditure may create at the same time an unexpected further decrease in the total funding available from all sources. For example, if a budget cut is reflected in college or university allotment for instructional equipment of the type funded under Title VI of the Higher Education Act of 1965, then the language of section 604(b) of that act would come into play.
It states:

> An institution of higher education shall be eligible for a grant for a project pursuant to this part in any fiscal year only if such institution will expend during such year for the same purposes as, but not pursuant to, this part an amount at least equal to the amount expended by such institution for such purposes during the previous fiscal year. The Commissioner shall establish basic criteria for making determinations under this subsection.

The net result of such a "saving" would be to give up access from federal funds of between 50 per cent and 80 per cent of the cost of the item. The state plan requirements of Title I of that act with respect to community service and continuing education programs has a similar stricture against using federal money to supplant institutional funds. In Title II of the act relating to college library assistance, to qualify for library grants the institution must provide satisfactory assurance that:

> The applicant will expend during the fiscal year for which the grant is requested (from funds other than funds received under this part) for all library purposes (exclusive of construction) (1) an amount not less than the average annual amount it expended for such purposes during the two-year period ending June 30, 1965, and (2) an amount (from such other sources) equal to not less than the amount of such grant:

(a) the applicant will expend during the fiscal year for which the grant is requested (from funds other than funds received under this part) for books, periodicals, documents, magnetic tapes, phonograph records, audio-visual materials, and other related materials (including necessary binding) for library purposes an amount not less than the average annual amount if expended for such materials during the two-year period ending June 30, 1965.

Now I am no prophet. I cannot forsee what future course the Congress may take with respect to further legislation; but based upon some twenty-one years of Senate service, I suspect that where such a provision does not now exist in education laws, it will be offered at the next review and extension.

But the real answer to the argument that local and state tax sources cannot carry the load should be an impartial examination of the facts of the matter.

If one were to take the data published by the Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census in *Government Finances 1964-65*, under the heading of: "Direct General Expenditures of States and Local Governments for Institutions of Higher Education" and relate these figures to personal income data by state for 1964 one finds a series of very interesting percentages emerging.

Higher Education Expenditures as a Per Cent of Personal Income, Selected States, 1964

State	*Percentage*
North Dakota	2.50
Colorado	2.48
Vermont	2.29
Oregon	2.04
Mississippi	1.99
Wisconsin	1.90
Minnesota	1.77
Michigan	1.70
Delaware	1.48
Kentucky	1.46
California	1.45

It would seem from the foregoing partial list that the value of higher education, as seen by the voters of these states, measured by the hard test of pocketbook support and tax take, that this data would militate against any argument raised by political sources that the voters would not stand for additional higher education funding costs.

None of the states on the list I have developed from Kentucky to North Dakota are among the richest in population or resources. But it seems to me that their citizens have an eye to the future. The investment these states are making in the basic natural resource of trained human intelligence will bring dividends and return far beyond the seed money of institutional support that they have planted.

If these states can make an effort such as this, I would hold that the presumption exists that other and richer states can do more than they are now doing in support of higher education.

There is a time to every purpose. Surely there is a time in each generation for the review and reaffirmation of those ideals and concepts which bind together the people from diverse origins who make up the American society of today. These are the ideas that are at the foundation of your effort as junior college educators: belief in the dignity of the individual and the worth of his contribution to the welfare of others; acceptance, as a working hypothesis, of the concept that rationality applied to problems can resolve problems; belief that despite temporary setbacks, progress can and will occur; faith that a political system such as ours, which is derived from ideals of liberty and based on procedures assuring equality of opportunity to its citizens and which is restrained from tyranny by a system of constitutional checks and balances, can, will, and should survive and prosper. These ideas are far more than our economic might, the source of our strength as a nation. By discussing these ideas in your curriculums you can help to bring about the shared attitude on the fundamental agreements of our society which permit us peacefully to change and innovate within our borders in our continuous quest for improvement.

By illustrating these ideas, I do not, in the slightest, rule out the salutary role that the criticism of these concepts entails, because of my conviction that free and untrammeled intellectual inquiry is the soundest road to the resolution of conflict and the establishment of a just and prosperous society. So while I might accept the slogan, "Keep Politics Out of Education," at a superficial level, at a more basic level, I suggest to you that now is the time for you to accept as a purpose, and to exercise your rights as free men and women to effectuate that purpose, to educate, not only your students, but the communities from which they come.

Speak out on the great issues of our time and bring to bear upon them your intelligence and the insights you have developed from the study of your disciplines. Freedom of speech is a precious guarantee of domestic tranquility, and it, with its corollary, academic freedom, are our most effective checks upon the actions of public officials.

Unless you use these weapons, when in conscience you feel you must, to purify debate and to propound alternatives and consequences, you are not faithful to the trust and privilege reposed in your profession.

Let me in closing therefore, remind you of the language used by the Supreme Court in deciding the Sweezy case:

> The essentiality of freedom in the community of American universities is almost self-evident. No one should underestimate the vital role in a democracy that is played by those who guide and train our youth. To impose any strait jacket upon the intellectual leaders in our colleges and universities would imperil the future of our nation. No field of education is so thoroughly comprehended by man that new discoveries cannot yet be made. Particularly is that true in the social sciences, where few, if any, principles are accepted as absolutes. Scholarship cannot flourish in an atmosphere of suspicion and distrust. Teachers and students must always remain free to inquire, to study and to evaluate, to gain new maturity and understanding; otherwise our civilization will stagnate and die.

There is a time to every purpose. I salute you, I thank you, and I wish you well in all your endeavors.

SESSION 1

Shattering Shibboleths in Junior Colleges

SHATTERING SHIBBOLETHS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

Moderator's Report by Kenneth G. Skaggs
Occupational Education Specialist
American Association of Junior Colleges

The session entitled "Shattering Shibboleths in Junior Colleges" was an attempt to bring to the conference audience some concept of the innovation and experimental planning now going on among junior colleges. It was recognized, of course, and stated that in a program of little more than an hour, no definitive presentation could be made. Only a sampling was possible from junior colleges scattered around the nation.

It was made quite clear to those in attendance that a very specific understanding of what is meant by experimentation and innovation is needed. There have been many changes and modifications effected in junior college curriculums, faculty and staff organization, teaching techniques and materials, and facility planning, all of which are good and have provided for improvement in the institutional programs, but which are not actually innovative or experimental—in their real sense alterations or modifications of basic approaches, philosophy, and structures. The very drastic thinking that is needed in planning and the depth of the break with the past has been indicated in the somewhat humorous title of the session: "Shattering Shibboleths." True innovation and experimentation are not simply altering and modifying a basic and traditional concept. Rather, innovation is a new concept rising out of the new breed of people in our society and the new conditions of living.

Five programs defined as innovative or experimental were presented at this session:

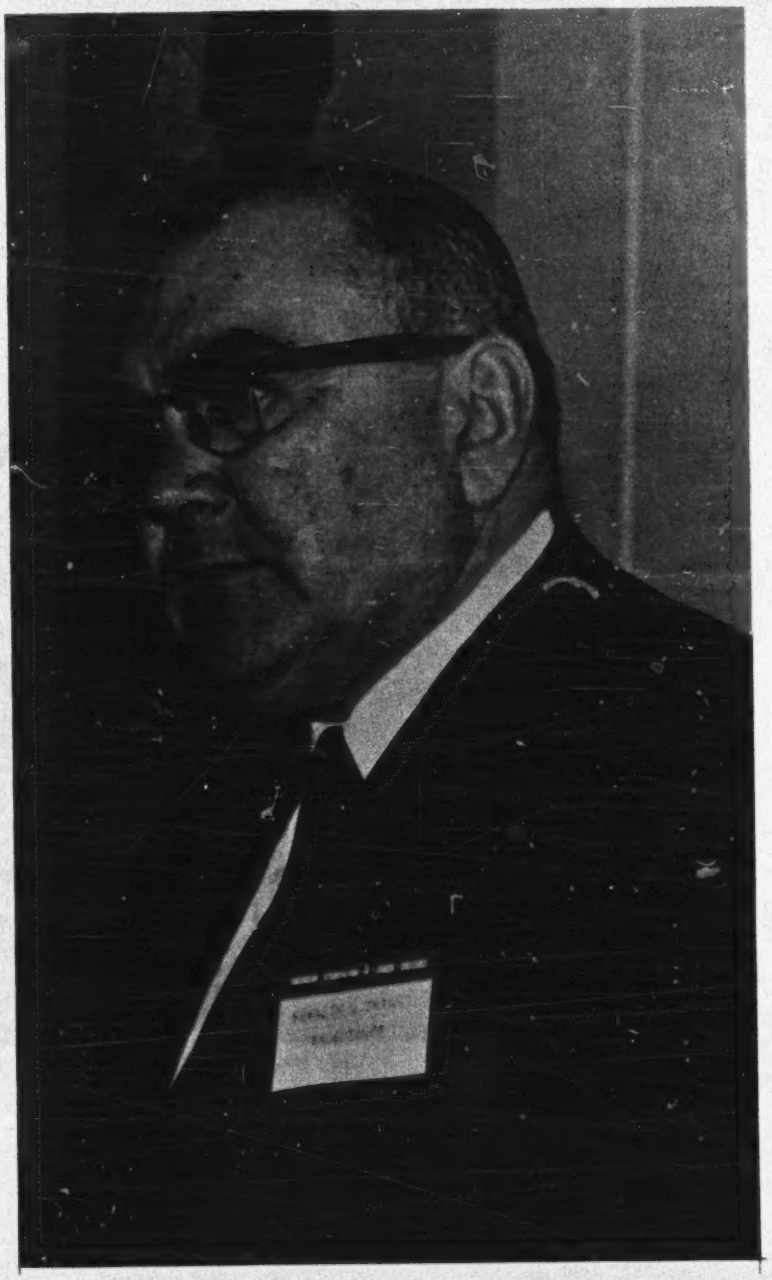
1. Ralph Gauvey, president of Roger Williams Junior College, Rhode Island, described the break in his college with the heretofore rather inflexible concept of a junior college. While Roger Williams Junior College is intended to remain as such in its philosophical approach and much of its programing, it will also prepare to open doors to upward mobility of students into a third year or even a fourth year of a program when needs for additional assistance are identified. Students, therefore, taking advantage of a local community junior college will not have a door closed to them automatically at the end of two years—if community needs are such, this junior college will feel free to continue its program until needs are met.

2. Dudley Boyce, president of Golden West College, California, described in detail the ways in which a newly developing institution breaking with planning patterns of the past involved all of its staff and faculty and personnel in devising the kind of programs and curriculums that met the individual needs of students whether they be seventeen years of age or seventy—curriculums and programs not based upon traditional and philosophical concepts but based upon the real needs of a community and identified needs of individuals are becoming a realization at this college.

3. Donald J. Carlyon, president of Delta College, Michigan, described a new approach to broadening the horizons of his faculty and increasing the vision of his staff by an in-service program involving visitation, travel, evaluation of other junior college programs, and interaction of his faculty with faculty members from other institutions. Such a program is carried on at the expense of the college and has already developed a visible influence and effect upon the forward movement of instruction at Delta College.

4. Wallace Homitz, president of Laney College, California, described in detail the new concept of instructional techniques that break through the conventional dependence on sight and hearing for the participation of students and develop all the senses as learning organs. In order to develop this totality of learning on the part of the individual, Dr. Homitz described a whole new concept of physical facility planning, focusing most of the attention on the planning and construction of the sensory learning capsule as a new kind of teaching experience.

5. John Tirrell, president of Oakland Community College, Michigan, described the new approach to learning and the new approach to instructional techniques developed by his faculty and staff at the Oakland Community College. The new concept is to break away from the whole traditional classroom type of learning experience with its hit-or-miss participation by students and with its many restrictions to sound learning procedures, to the newer concept of individual and independent study making use of new kinds of facilities, new materials, and a whole new approach on the part of both teacher and student to the learning process.



SESSION 3

College Organization and Administration: Some Faculty Views

COLLEGE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION: SOME FACULTY VIEWS

By David L. Underwood, Assistant Dean
Florissant Valley Community College
St. Louis, Missouri

Since being in California, I have noticed the newspapers here have a fondness for big, bold, glaring headlines. I have a new one to suggest: "Garrison Gets Award for Gall." Imagine asking an administrator to speak on faculty views of administration. It's like asking Ralph Nader to sell automobiles.

So I don't know which set of prejudices to display here: the ones I used to have when I was teaching English or the ones I now cherish as an administrator.

It seemed to me that a logical approach would be to discuss briefly what teachers want from administration, using my own recollections and the reactions I have collected from teachers. But then I should also describe what teachers have a *right* to expect of administration. As an administrator, I feel I have a duty to do this.

Just what do faculty want from administration? (As seen through the jaundiced view of an administrator.)

I have no doubt that the biggest problem of faculty is time—or rather the lack of time—regardless of what they themselves say about their problems. Talk to any group of teachers and the problem of time gets introduced in some way eventually. I suppose that is the reason teachers always complain about duties that intrude on what they see as their principal business. That is the reason they dislike committee work, clercial routine, and so forth. They see as their major role either teaching or scholarship, not the performance of routine work that keeps an institution going. Amid the current concern about the problem of faculty involvement in the development of policy, I suspect that the real question is not how much should they be involved, but how is the faculty member going to find time to become involved, without cheating his students or shortchanging himself in his own professional growth?

And because of the time problem, there is the constant complaint about work load. Teachers expect, they tell me, a "reasonable" teaching load. When they request a lighter teaching assignment they are not really showing a lazy side; they are honestly trying to find enough time to do as well as possible the job they were hired to do. But what is "reasonable" for one man may be unreasonable for another. And for the administrator, with one eye on a slim budget, the teacher's notion of a "reasonable" load is likely to appear ridiculous.

Faculty members also expect recognition and rewards, to state the matter in baldest terms. Included among such rewards is an adequate salary, but that is not the only form of reward. There really is more to teaching satisfaction than earning a large salary. In this regard we are concerned with a basic human need for recognition. We ought to remember that medals, awards, bonuses, titles, whatever their merit, are but symbols intended to show the world something else that may well be far more important to faculty than are the symbols themselves. After all, the important thing about a distinguished professor award is not the piece of paper or the plaque, but the attitude it represents.

In junior college work, appropriate rewards are especially critical, if I read faculty signals correctly. I know that a good many junior college faculty look with envy on their colleagues in four-year schools because identification with a prestigious institution automatically gives the four-year college teacher a sort of public recognition. It is one thing for a man to say "I teach at the university of whatchamacallit," and quite another for him to say "I teach at the junior college." And for this reason junior college faculty are likely to be almost painfully defensive about their roles as teachers rather than researchers. It would seem, therefore, that rewards for good teaching are most desirable, if a way of identifying good teaching can only be found. And one further point about rewards. I submit to you that the best form of recognition or reward a man can receive is the approval he gets from his professional colleagues.

Classroom faculty also expect to have the resources needed to do the job they are supposed to be doing. At the heart of this matter is the very understandable desire to receive recognition for doing a job well, or at least to avoid censure for doing a job poorly. A teacher who feels he is being hampered because he does not have the right equipment or auxiliary services will normally feel insecure, threatened with eventual censure, and perhaps will even feel guilty, however unreasonable that attitude might be.

For example, rarely do teaching faculty have enough clerical help. As professionals, they are likely to resent the fact that each administrator has a private secretary, while they who are doing the "real work" of the institution sometimes cannot get a test typed unless they submit it to a secretarial pool a month in advance.

Equipment presents a similar problem. I wonder how many English teachers have said or thought something like this: "I guess *they* (notice the "they") think physics is more important than English. The physics man has enough equipment to start an institute of technology. He has a private laboratory where only physics classes can be taught. He has seven hours a week in which to teach his subject, while English teachers have only three." Again, whatever the merit of this line of reasoning, it exists.

I believe these faculty views are fairly widespread. Surely you've encountered them often enough. Judging from the frequency with which these problems are voiced, I assume that administration is expected to do something about the problems of time, work load, recognition and rewards, and availability of resources. What does the faculty have a right to expect of administration in such matters?

Rather than take up these items separately, I would like to focus briefly on four principles that encompass, in my view, the basic responsibility of administration. In large measure, as far I am concerned, they represent what the faculty has a right to expect. I leave it to you to determine whether there is any great disparity between what faculty expect and what they have a right to expect.

I read somewhere recently of one faculty view of administration's job. The comment said that the job of the faculty is to think, the job of the president is to make speeches, and the job of the dean is to keep the faculty from making speeches and the president from thinking.

To get back to *my* view of the administrative function, let me preface these remarks with one caution: much of what I say is theory, and I'm not going to have time to be very specific about application of the theory, or variation from it.

As I see it, the overriding responsibility of the administrator at any level is to provide whatever leadership he can to build an atmosphere and an environment for getting the job done. The job that is being done is the education of the students. Let us not forget that, ever. Individual faculty members are pretty much bent on their own ends: teaching and performing the scholarly work necessary in their own fields. That is their job. They're hired because they *are* specialists. They are not likely to spend much time building the overall atmosphere or environment of the institution, except insofar as they contribute to such environment with their own actions, in an incidental way. Indeed, they perhaps ought not to be expected to spend much time on such matters, unless they want to. If an institution is authoritarian, old-fashioned, academically absurd, it is the administrator's fault. He has to set the climate.

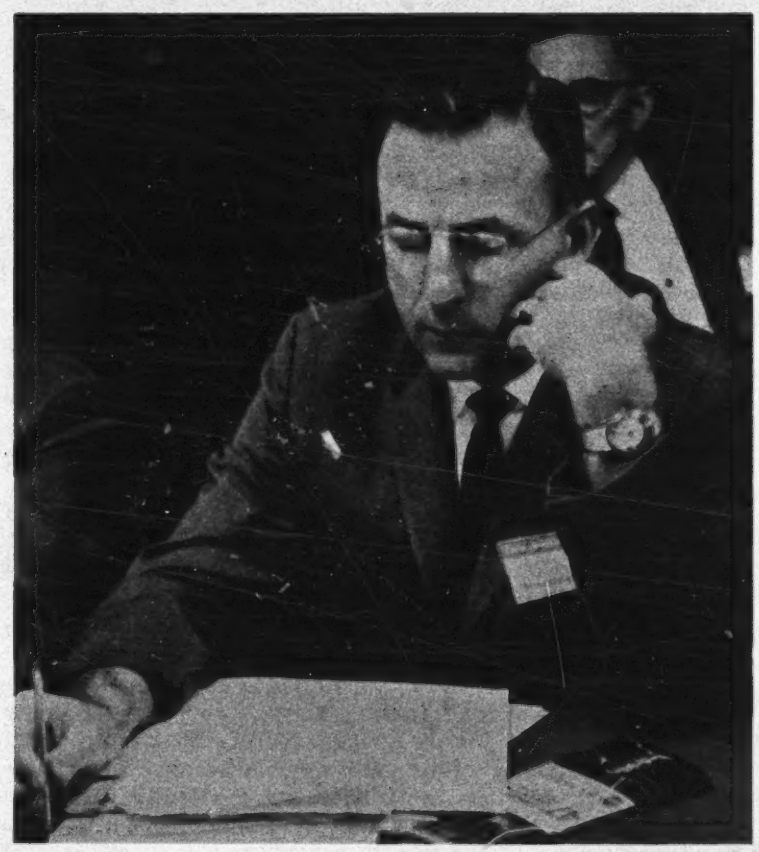
A second responsibility of the administrator is to facilitate the job of the institution by providing the resources and by coordinating their use, with advice from those most intimately concerned with such usage. And remember I said earlier that the job of the institution is the education of the students. Teachers, by the way, are themselves a resource. Unquestionably *the* major one. The administrator has to make it possible to acquire teachers, and ultimately has to decide how many the institution can afford to hire. But he is foolish if he does not elicit the aid of the specialists already on the staff in making such decisions, as well as the decisions as to the hiring of specific faculty.

With equipment, the same principle is applicable. The administrator who arbitrarily decides that faculty requests for a certain type of equipment are silly, is making a decision that he doesn't really have the right to make, since he is not the one who will use such equipment. He is like the husband who buys the family groceries without consulting his wife. The resulting menus may give him indigestion, and maybe that is what he deserves.

A third responsibility of administration is to raise questions. Because I am personally committed to the notion that the faculty must generate most of the thinking regarding the way instruction is handled, who does it, and so forth, I am forced to put myself in the position of being receptive to ideas. As an administrator, I realize this means I have the responsibility to raise appropriate questions. I really can't peremptorily say, "No." Rather, I must say, "Have you thought of this likelihood?" or "If we add the course you propose offering, will it attract the necessary number of students?" The real difficulty here is that faculty prefer quick decisions. And

often they would prefer a final "No" given today to a "Maybe" given six months after they propose something. Without delaying final decision making unnecessarily, then, the administrator should help the faculty to come to conclusions by finding shortcomings of proposals as well as by recognizing points of merit. This is a sort of protective attitude toward both the institution and the faculty. If a faculty member is permitted to make serious blunders because of hasty action, he is likely to retreat into the routine of things and keep future ideas to himself. The institution, too, requires such protection.

The final general responsibility of the administrator is to facilitate the development of the institution and the individuals in it by providing the appropriate incentives and rewards. Salary is one of these, but only one. Recognition and status symbols in the form of titles and so forth are part of this too. But I do believe that the best form of reward is the administrator's attitude. The refusal to accept faculty suggestions which have been properly thought through is to imply lack of trust. To set up policies or rules leveled at everyone because of the shortcomings of a few, again creates the feeling of distrust. And as I said before, unless I miss my guess, the trust placed in the faculty by colleagues, including administrators, may be the highest form of recognition a teaching faculty member can receive.



COLLEGE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION: SOME FACULTY VIEWS

By Howard Jones, Faculty Member
Lansing Community College
Lansing, Michigan

It would be inappropriate to consider methods by which the faculty of Lansing Community College participates in the governing of the college without investigating some of the reasons for faculty interest in college government. I shall mention three points and direct my attention primarily to the third point.

I. The faculty member is a citizen of the local service area of the college and feels intense local loyalty. The large state university has a statewide, nationwide, and even international service area. The smaller public or private four-year college normally has a statewide service area. In sharp contrast, the community college has a clearly defined local service area. The curriculum of the community college is largely determined by community need and the faculty member is aware of this need. The faculty member wishes to pass on to the administration his ideas concerning the academic needs and financial limitations of the community.

II. The community college is a relatively new institution. Many faculty members have seen the college develop from its founding and have seen their own ideas contribute to the development in a direct or immediate manner. As the college has grown in size it has become increasingly difficult to implement individual ideas in an immediate way. The faculty member feels that he has lost much of his influence.

III. In order to introduce reason III, I quote Douglas McGregor and his writing for the November/December 1966 issue of *Personnel* in which he describes Theory X versus Theory Y views of organizational management.

> Theory X is based upon the assumptions that man is inherently lazy and dislikes work, and that most people have little ambition, shun responsibility, and dislike making decisions. Management's task is to supervise, direct, reward, punish and control people.
>
> Theory Y is based upon the following assumptions:
>
> A. Most people do not dislike work and will exercise self-direction and self-control to attain goals to which they are committed. Under proper conditions they will not only accept, but will also seek responsibility.
>
> B. The average person possesses a high degree of creativity and it is management's task to discover how to tap this potential for solving organization problems.
>
> C. Lack of interest and low ambition are consequences of job experience and are not part of human nature.

Industry became aware of these two theories a number of years ago. Such Theory Y practices as the suggestion box and brainstorminng became both popular and successful.

Education has been slow in implementing Theory Y. The teaching faculty of the community college favors Theory Y, but many on our faculty feel that the administrators view them as Theory X people.

It seems that more administrators might well profit from the successes of Theory Y in industry and make clear their support of Theory Y in the colleges.

In the remainder of this writing I shall summarize our efforts to implement Theory Y at Lansing Community College.

In 1958, Lansing Community College had an enrollment of 700. The college was governed by the K-12 public school board. The chief administrative officer of the college was the president (then called dean). The twenty faculty members were in direct communication with the president who was dean of students, academic dean, registrar, and etc. Since one man served in all these capacities and faculty members were able to make known their views directly to the "boss", most faculty felt that their views received adequate and immediate consideration at the top.

In 1962, Lansing Community College had an enrollment of 2,000 and an administrative structure had begun to evolve. The president had been joined by a dean of students, a registrar, and the various departmental chairmen. The size of the college had led to a loss of communication between the forty-two faculty members and the president. No clear channel of communication had developed to replace the direct link to the top.

The faculty moved in 1963 to develop a new method for communicating faculty concerns. We composed a "Constitution of Faculty Organization" which provided for two bodies, the Faculty Assembly and the Faculty Senate.

> I quote from the original constitution—
>
> The purposes of the Faculty Assembly and Senate shall be:
>
> 1. To provide a means of clarifying and expressing faculty aspirations for the College
> 2. To offer a means of studying and recommending policies and practices for achieving these aspirations and
> 3. To facilitate communication within the institution.

The first year of operation under the new constitution was 1964-1965.

In 1964, Lansing Community College had an enrollment of 3,000 and the administrative structure was essentially the same as that of 1962. The Faculty Assembly was composed of all administrators and teaching faculty, but the chairman of the Faculty Assembly was a member of the teaching faculty. The senate was a smaller more manageable body with roughly one senator from each department. The president of the college served as chairman of the senate.

The idea was that the senate would serve as a forum for concerns brought to its attention by the assembly.

The plan sounded ideal. The faculty had regained its communication to the chief administrative officer of the college. In the majority of faculty concerns, the plan worked very well, but many faculty members were reluctant to voice concerns in the senate which might be unpopular with the president. There was feeling among the faculty that the senate was simply a "rubber stamp" body for administrative decisions.

The senate slogged through the year amid criticism of the organization and its meager accomplishments.

In 1965, Lansing Community College had an enrollment of 3,500 and significant changes were to come. The

president began senate operation as in 1964. The teaching faculty was still grumbling about the senate. The president sensed the problem and wisely absented himself from senate meetings in late 1965. In accordance with the constitution, the president appointed the Faculty Assembly chairman to preside at the remaining senate meetings. Senate discussions suddenly ranged the spectrum of faculty concern and loud oration was not uncommon.

Another significant happening came to pass in 1965. The community college left the control of the K-12 school board and has since operated under its own board of control with a separate operational millage. The assembly and senate adopted a new merit pay system called Career Plan. A career plan was approved by the board of trustees in the summer of 1965. Under the plan, salary, rank, and tenure are determined by such criteria as teaching effectiveness, and loyalty to the goals and philosophy of the college. The plan relies entirely on Theory Y in its basic tenets.

A complete administrative reorganization also took place in 1965. The president retained his position and three deans were designated: an academic dean, a dean of personnel and student services, and a dean of special projects and college services. Three associate deans were designated: an associate dean for the business division, an associate dean for the division of arts and sciences, and an associate dean for engineering and applied technologies division.

Why the changes? We were growing at an amazing rate and we would no longer be able to rely upon the K-12 board for direction. The college had to develop an autonomous structure within which to operate for several years to come.

The "new" senate, i.e., the old senate minus the president, decided to revise its own constitution in keeping with the new college organization. The essential revisions were:

1. The senate would no longer have any administrative membership.
2. The Faculty Assembly chairman would serve as senate chairman.

The changes were subsequently approved by the new board of trustees. This new constitution was definitely the most significant contribution by the senate to date.

In 1966, Lansing Community College had an enrollment of over 4,000 students and showed signs of reaching 10,000 enrollment by 1972-73.

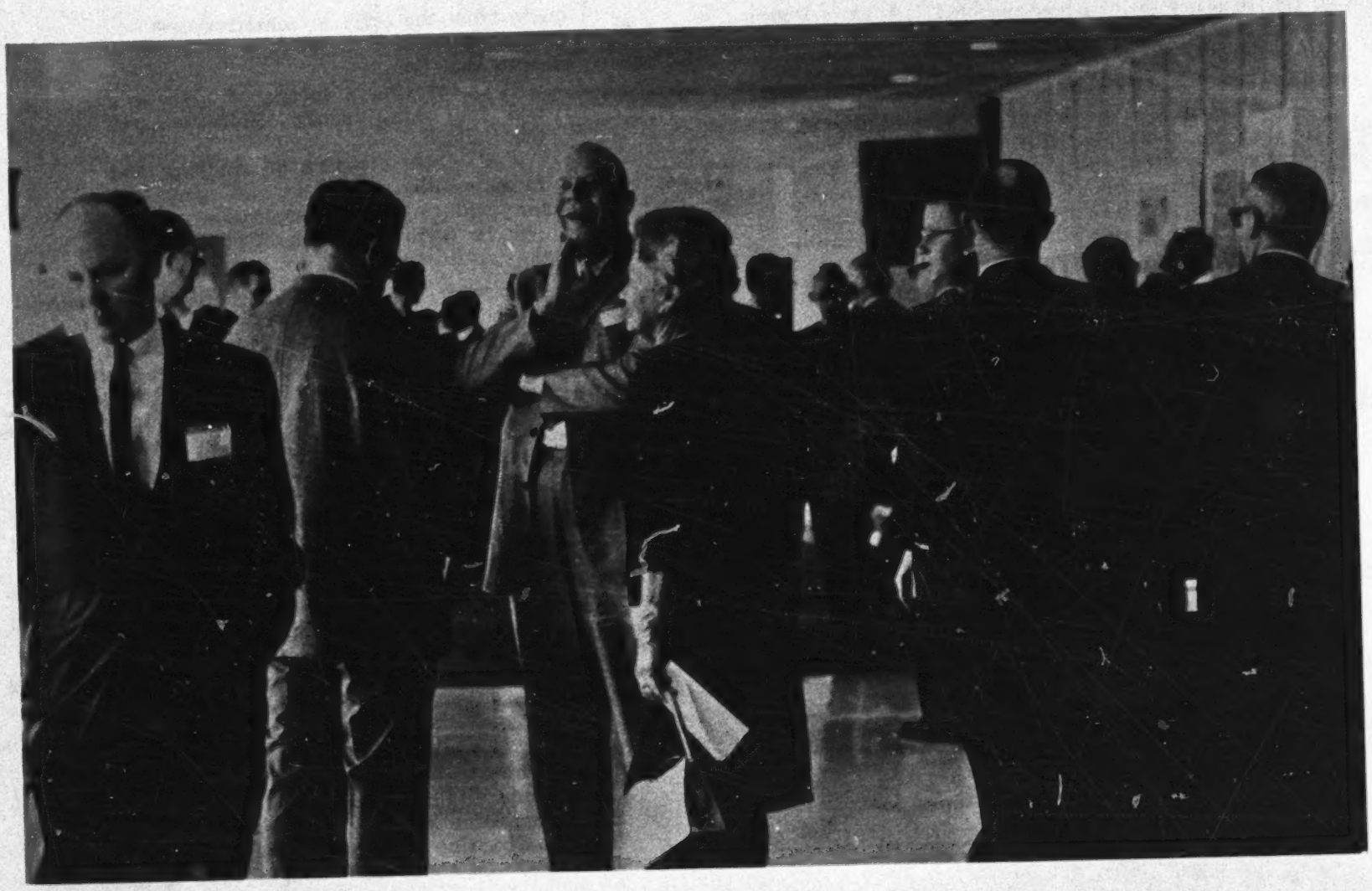
In the fall of 1966 I was elected Faculty Assembly chairman and immediately worked with the administration to develop a budget for the operation of the assembly and senate. (This suggestion had been made by the able chairman of the preceding year.) A major part of the budget was used to finance one-third released time for the chairman so that he might more effectively discharge the year's duties.

Our operation for 1966-67 is as follows: The Faculty Assembly passes its concerns to a three-member steering committee of the senate. The steering committee establishes an agenda for each senate meeting. The senate operates formally through two subcommittees, the faculty personnel policies committee, and the instiutional study and evaluation committee.

The following charges were proposed to the standing committees:

Proposed Charge to the Institutional Study and Evaluation Committee for 1966-67

The Constitution of Faculty Organization states that the Institutional Study and Evaluation Committee shall be concerned



with the development of criteria by which the effectiveness of the educational process in the college may be evaluated.

To this end the Senate charges the Institutional Study and Evaluation Committee with the investigation of the following specific areas during 1966-67:

1. Innovation and experimentation in the educational process
2. Role of the part-time faculty member. Ratio of full-time faculty to part-time faculty in the various departments
3. Course evaluation.

Proposed Charge to the Faculty Personnel Policies Committee for 1966-67

The Constitution of Faculty Organization states that the Faculty Personnel Policies Committee shall "concern itself with the welfare of the faculty."

To this end, the Senate charges the Faculty Personnel Policies Committee with the investigation of the following specific areas during 1966-67:

1. Further study of the Leave Policy Recommendation which was submitted to the Academic Council (1965-1966) by the Faculty P rsonnel Policies Committee in the Spring of 1966
2. Addition of benefits under the College Insurance Plan
3. Study and Revision of The Career Plan.

Matters which the senate is unable to resolve in open session are sent to the appropriate committee for action. The committee formulates a proposal which the senate reviews and revises. The proposal is then voted upon by the senate and is then presented to the Academic Council which is composed of the associate deans and the academic dean of the college. The Academic Council has a tough job since they must receive proposals from both the senate and the departmental chairmen and also make known their own views. The Academic Council makes its recommendations (based upon at least three viewpoints) to the president's cabinet which is composed of the three deans of the college, the comptroller, the president and the administrative assistant to the president. This body again has at least three points of view to consider. The academic dean represents the concerns of the academic council, the dean of students represents student concerns and a third viewpoint is presented by the remaining cabinet members.

Ultimately the president's cabinet recommends policy to the board of trustees.

An idea which originated in the senate may not receive approval at some point in its travel to the board of trustees. An explanation from the administration may fail to satisfy the senate and assembly. If I agree that the explanation is valid then I try to convince the senate and assembly of the validity of the explanation. If I do not agree that the explanation is valid then the senate must try to convince the administration that our proposal has merit. At this point we may be reminded that our senate is an advisory body.

I feel that the Faculty Assembly is communicating its views to the administration in a more effective manner than in any year since its inception. Several suggestions have been made for improving communication. It has been suggested that the senate should be responsible directly to the board of trustees. I do not agree with this suggestion since the senate would then operate outside the administrative structure of the college and thus bypass all viewpoints other than those of the teaching faculty.

A similar suggestion was made that the senate should be responsible to the president's cabinet. If this were the case, the senate would bypass the academic council and therefore the departmental chairmen. The departmental chairmen would obviously be hostile to such a situation.

Both of these suggestions imply a lack of confidence in the lower levels of administration where communication should usually be most effective.

In summary, I feel that given the current administrative structure of the college, the senate should communicate primarily at the level of the academic council.

Suppose we accept our channel of communication to the administration as adequate. Is that the only direction in which communication must travel? I feel that communication between the senate and the assembly is of equal importance. Several members of the Faculty Assembly have informed me that they wish to be involved in a more direct manner in the formulation of senate proposals. In order to communicate with the members of the Faculty Assembly, I feel that the role of the individual senators must be carefully exercised. The senator must poll the feelings of his constituents on all matters of general concern and must not ignore such feelings in his senate voting. As chairman and senator at large, I must sense the feeling of the total faculty and present my findings in the senate.

As senators we must guard against representing personal concerns unless the personal concern happens to represent a matter of general interest.

The senate must serve as something more than a bargaining agent for the faculty. Michigan law (House Bill 2953 was approved by the governor on July 23, 1965) provides for organizations to designate bargaining agents to negotiate matters related to contract and working conditions. Lansing Community College has not designated such a bargaining agent, but the Faculty Senate through its personnel policies committee has assumed the bargaining function. Bargaining and related matters should not be the only senate concerns.

This year the senate has dealt with many matters of an immediate nature, such as academic calendar, evaluation under the merit plan, and statements for inclusion in our forthcoming "Faculty Handbook." I feel that we should concern ourselves with matters of long-range importance as well, such as the impact of future enrollment, institutional evaluation, and research and development. This year there has not yet been sufficient time to consider such matters.

The senate will need to establish guidelines which will separate senate concerns from departmental concerns.

On the other hand, the departmental chairman will need to be aware of the same guidelines so that the senate will not be accused of meddling in departmental affairs.

It is my hope that many of the procedures which we establish this year will set precedent for future senates so that they may profit from our errors and learn from our successes in order to reduce the amount of time needed to carry out routine projects.

I look forward to reading my successor's annual report in June of 1968.

COLLEGE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION: SOME FACULTY VIEWS

By Charles Korn, Faculty Member
Middlesex County College
Edison, New Jersey

Can the criteria or characteristics which faculty members use to evaluate administrators and administrative situations be clearly and concisely defined? Which of these characteristics are usually considered by faculty to be good?

It would perhaps be best to begin answering these questions by attempting to define the concept of administrator. An administrator is at once an exploiter and a manipulator. He exploits a body of psychological knowledge consisting of principles and concepts of human behavior, various methods for measuring attitudes and evaluating performances, a set of rules and norms which govern the actions between individuals so that a cohesive and unified group may be formed and manipulated for the attainment of certain desirable organizational goals.

These goals must be constantly held in mind. When the goals are clearly recognized as desirable by the professional educator who is part of the staff, then the task of the administrator is made easy. Pursuit of the goal becomes a motivating factor in knitting and molding the faculty into a purposeful group. When the goals are not clear, or when they are at variance with the purposes of the institution, then the loyalties of the faculty are stressed: resulting in an undesirable polarity between pleasing one's superior and advancing the institution in the direction of its purpose.

It is in this kind of a situation that "informal" leadership is most likely to flourish. Hence a well-defined "informal" leadership is clearly a symptom for administrative self-evaluation.

Let's take a look to see how Middlesex County College measures up in the light of these criteria: A body of instructional staff members arrived on campus very shortly after Labor Day, 1966. There was considerable individual grumbling. The sense of the complaints can best be summarized as: "School does not open until the 28th. Why do we have to report so early?" I cannot remember a single calm voice dispassionately pointing out that the reason for the lead time for opening might be to properly form a faculty. I wonder if anyone would have understood the importance of this task. Certainly it was necessary that the faculty be welded, informed of the purposes of the college, and pointed in the right direction so that it might have a chance to attain its goals.

We all found ourselves rushing through a very busy timetable, being introduced to a new language as well as to each other. Before long, whenever we had a chance to relax, we "welcomed each other aboard." Whatever else was happening, we were all moving in the same direction. At some vague and indefinable point, we had become a faculty.

By the time of the students arrival, we began to feel ourselves as part of a throbbing and viable "thing" called Middlesex County College. Looking back, I feel that most of us really enjoyed those first hectic days.

There were problems, of course. Schedules were given out rather late, slowing up the preparations of course outlines and lesson plans. Further, teachers were people before they were teachers, and people-trouble began to appear. While each staff member presumably made a deal that was satisfactory at the time it was made and accepted, there were some invidious second sights made in review of "what the other fellow" received. Although each faculty salary was a matter of public record, there was concern that no formal salary schedule had been published. It was at this point that we became aware of the most valuable characteristic of an administrator: viz., approachability.

When I speak of the characteristic of approachability, I do not refer to that "good fellow" kind of approachability which manifests itself in a courteous and sympathetic ear that listens to a problem and hopes that it will soon be submerged by the calm personality of the listener. Subordinates expect that leadership implies experience to cope with problems and come up with satisfactory solutions a fair percentage of the time. Certainly, if leadership has any specific meaning, this must be included. So I refer to that kind of approachability which will accept a problem, come to grips with it, and then provide an answer. Faculty depends upon leadership for the benefit of the experience leadership stands for.

Let me give an example from past experience to illustrate one case of leadership failure. I became a member of a state college faculty about three years ago—bringing some past experience as a staff member of an N.S.F. institute in physics as part of my background. It soon became apparent that there was a vacuum in the number of physics summer institutes in New Jersey and that this particular state college could be able to fill that gap with a much needed training course for physics teachers who were about to teach the physical science study committee curriculum. It was necessary to prepare a proposal with specific courses enumerated. Since I was new at the school, I asked my chairman for assistance. It was made evident that this specific proposal was intended to train those teachers with the poorest background and preparation. The assistance I needed was for suggestions as to course numbers. The chairman quickly suggested some courses with 500 numbers, and this information became part of the proposal.

Several months later, we were informed that the proposal was accepted. The ensuing summer brought fifty-four high school teachers to the campus from all parts of the country. In accordance with our selection procedure, their backgrounds were very much substand-

ard. One was teaching physics without a bachelor's degree. Within two weeks, I was informed that the new dean of the college was very angry at me for admitting this teacher to a 500 course. It seems that the basic accreditation policy for graduate courses had been violated. This embrarrassing situation certainly could have been avoided if a more careful consideration of course numbers had been made in the first place. I would strongly urge that administrators make every effort to avoid off the cuff answers to any problem—no matter how trivial such problem may appear.

Let's take a look now at how some problems have been handled at my present situation. At Middlesex, we brought our problems to the president. We not only received some answers, but were soon informed that the administration had problems which by their very weight were troublesome. The faculty was anxious to help in researching and deliberating these problems to aid in advising a most harried administrator.

At our present level of development, we have formed an incipient faculty organization with committees to advise on the solutions of the many problems that face a new institution. These include committees on accreditation, library and faculty welfare which are presently functioning, and student activities and curriculum, and instruction which will be formed in the very near future. These activities are going on even though there is no permanent structure or form to the faculty organization at this time.

COLLEGE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION: SOME FACULTY VIEWS

By Robert O. Davison, Faculty Member
St. Petersburg Junior College
St. Petersburg, Florida

When Roger Garrison invited me to participate on this panel, I was mystified but delighted. Since then I have had time to reflect, even to contemplate upon the eventuality of facing a throng of administrators and giving them some faculty views about administrative deficiencies and faculty apprehensions. Indeed, the more I contemplated, the more clouded Mr. Garrison's admonition to be "frank, even blunt," became. However, when I learned that President Bennett from St. Petersburg Junior College would be an attentive member of the audience I was somewhat relieved, for it is thanks to him that I am able to be here today, but, what is more important, he is already aware of the problems I shall discuss, and is probably already taking steps to solve them.

College Organization: We instructors at St. Petersburg Junior College (we are all instructors, for we have no academic rank) have nothing to do with college organization. Decisions of this kind are made at the administrative level, and many faculty members are quite content to let them remain there, for at the persent time, as set forth in the *Faculty Manual*, faculty responsibility lies in the classroom and in effective teaching. At S.P.J.C. we all feel the strain of expansion at an alarming rate. The administration is panting frantically to keep up. As a result of this expansion, we now have three campuses considered as one. Theoretically this may be so, but actually it is not the case. Each campus is an entity unto itself and except on the part of the administration, there is little communication between the faculties of the three campuses. Right or wrong, the original campus cannot help but feel that it is the main campus, and that the other two are really stepchildren. On the other hand, the newer campuses feel that they are superior to the older one, for they are newly conceived and have been developed with the idea of sidestepping some of the mistakes of the older campus. It will be interesting to observe the situation as the different campuses establish their identity with the passing of the years.

The situation of a junior college with three campuses considered as one creates administrative problems that directly affect the faculty who are expected to teach the same materials, use the same texts, etc. This uniformity is fine as long as we have common goals and fair agreement among the various faculties. Should there arise a strong disagreement, however, this could produce an explosive situation. This was indicated by one faculty member with whom I talked who expressed his concern over the fact that we have an autonomous departmental chairman of each campus. Ideally these three should work together, but should a clash of philosophies present itself, there is no one to impose his will. What seems to be needed is either one departmental head with authority over the other two, or an administrator versant in academic matters pertaining specifically to the departments involved who could be the final arbiter. I hesitate to propose the latter, for most faculty members that I have questioned feel that at the present time there is a plethora of administrators of varying degrees of efficiency who are concerned primarily with their personal image and only incidentally with faculty and students.

This unflattering judgment is hardly the case with the instructor's immediate superior, the department chairman. At S.P.J.C. all the faculty with whom I spoke were of the opinion that their departmental chairmen were eminently qualified educators chosen for their administrative ability to head a department and to interpret administrative policy, but whose loyalties secretly lie in the direction of the faculty and the students. Could this intimate that there is a conflict of interests between administration and faculty? Only the most naive would assume anything to the contrary.

Granted that the primary function of the faculty lies in teaching and not in policy making or general administration, what therefore can be the role of the faculty in governing a college? There are many administrators who think that the faculty has no role therein. Such an attitude seems to reflect the autocratic type of thinking that governs the elementary and secondary schools which are controlled by a central agency. It would seem however, that if the junior college is an institution of higher learning in more than name only, that it should be governed in the same manner as a college or a university in which the faculty is considered a responsible group of educators capable of advising or even formulating decisions relative to teaching.

As an initial step, I believe that representatives of the faculty should be able to meet with selected administrators in a senate or forum in order to discuss suggestions for more effective teaching. This could encompass all facets such as faculty loads, salary, and so forth. Any faculty member could communicate directly with any member of the forum in order to present any problem that might arise.

At the present time, such an organization as this does exist at S.P.J.C. In addition to faculty representatives elected from the faculty at large, the administration is represented by appointed members. Entitled the Faculty Forum, this organization is headed by the director of academic affairs. Minutes of their monthly meeting are published in an organ appropriately entitled *The Link* which is distributed to all members of the faculty in booklet form.

Newly organized, the Faculty Forum has become a valuable tool in the field of faculty and administrative communication, broaching such subjects as articulation with high schools, academic preparation of students, chaperonage at college functions, recognition of scholastic excellence at graduation, and academic freedom.

In addition to minutes of the Faculty Forum, *The Link* also explains new administrative procedures and the reasons for their adoption. This is an excellent method of insuring against friction through a lack of communication.

As a direct outcome of their discussion concerning academic freedom, members of the forum were selected to poll the faculty for definitions and comments. Since results have not been published as yet, I can only report what I have learned by questioning various instructors. All concur that they have academic freedom. Any restrictions that they may have experienced were self-imposed, stemming directly from their personal sense of responsibility as members of a community college.

Despite the Faculty Forum, many faculty members are convinced that they have little voice in policy making. Some feel that as the college continues to grow and the administration takes up new quarters in a building of its own far removed from any campus, it will become unaware of the academic pulse and rapidly transform itself into an impersonal bureaucratic behemoth impossible to deal with. These members have voiced a desire for a more forceful organization than the Faculty Forum, a deliberative type of organization with wide faculty representation that must be consulted in matters relative to the formation of academic policy. Whether the top administrators envision such a body is unrevealed at this time. Let us hope that they will be foresighted enough to consider this measure before they are forced to do so, as were their colleagues in California.

The Administrator: It goes without saying that as a college grows so does its administration. It becomes more and more difficult for the president to maintain a personal contact with his faculty. Indeed, when any college gets to certain proportions, it becomes impossible. In this case, faculty and administrative communication can become a major problem. Forced to delegate authority, the president becomes a remote figure far removed from the lowly faculty member. Unless he is careful to try to maintain his lines of communication with the faculty, he can soon find himself cut off to such an extent that misunderstandings, friction or even hostilities may arise.

When queried about our president at S.P.J.C. all the faculty members with whom I spoke echoed my admiration for Dr. Bennett. Not only did they feel that he was an excellent administrator, but they felt that he was approachable. Some cited specific examples of steps he had taken to help them personally when they were seeking something which was beyond the power of their departmental chairmen. In my own case, I am well aware of Dr. Bennett's consideration and interest in my behalf.

We realize, however, that personal communication with the president is becoming more and more difficult. With three campuses and another in the offing, necessity has demanded that a separate administrative center be built. We must bow to progress and efficiency, even if it entails a concomitant loss of personal communication. I can only feel that as this happens the gap now separating faculty and administration will widen progressively.

At the present time, those of us who teach in fairly large colleges are directly responsible to our departmental chairmen who act as liason between us and the administration. The chairman's role becomes increasingly heavy as the gap between faculty and administration widens. Many faculty members are convinced that except for the president, most administrators are engaged actively in empire building. This entails a bewildering proliferation of unnecessary forms, papers, red tape, and folderol designed to emphasize the importance of the administrator and to frustrate the instructor who is to try to teach masterfully.

The ideal departmental chairman must therefore, be a remarkable kind of hybrid, capable on the one hand of performing efficiently with the administration and on the other, acting as chief to insure the smooth operation of his department. From the faculty point of view he must be academically respectable. He must be able to discuss academic affairs with them and arrive at satisfactory conclusions. In addition he must be fair, allotting to each member of his staff, as far as he is able, assignments that reflect and challenge all of his capabilities. Favoritism can quickly engender an unhealthy situation undermining even the best of departments. The chairman must be aware of his faculty's weaknesses, knowing intuitively when to suggest improvement and when to ignore that which cannot be ameliorated. In addition, he must be apprised of their strengths, supporting these with praise and recognition.

Being conscious of the need for instructional improvement as a safeguard against stagnation, the departmental chairman should encourage faculty discussions, attendance at professional meetings, and the reading of professional literature reflecting new trends and techniques in his field. Whenever possible, the chairman should encourage faculty-inspired experimentation designed for greater teaching efficiency or to meet a felt academic need. As chairman he should also be somewhat of a psychiatrist who will listen to the problems of his faculty sympathetically — someone to whom they can "blow off steam" if necessary so as to allow them to face their jobs with a new perspective. It goes without saying that in order to effect this, the chairman must, as far as feasible, encourage an "open-door" policy so that his faculty may feel free to turn to him when they need to.

Faculty Attitudes: The expression "open-door" furnishes me with an easy transition from the department chairman to the faculty member himself: for the way an instructor feels about himself should be one of the major items of interest to the administrator.

None of my colleagues has ever expressed concern over the fact that because of the "open-door" policy of admission, our students, taken as a whole, do not present the intellectual challenge that an instructor might expect at an institution whose rigorous entrance requirements underline the college's avowed philosophy of academic excellence. This silence does not reflect an indifference on the instructor's part, but rather an acceptance of a pedagogical challenge that forces him to experiment in the presentation of his material in order to effect the maximum stimulation in students of varying abilities. It represents also the acknowledgement that in any group of students there are usually some who are highly motivated and who will be receptive to ideas, attributes that often combine to make good students if not brilliant ones. It is probably because of these students who furnish him with proof of his ability to "put the material across" that the instructor is spurred to greater efforts.

Few of my colleagues feel that they are teaching down to their students. To the contrary, they feel that they are doing a very creditable job. They are also well aware that they are teaching first and second-year courses by choice rather than by decree with the consequence that they endeavor to teach these courses well and on a level that is within the reach of the average student. How different from many colleges and universities where the beginning courses are relegated to graduate students or beginning instructors who have no real interest in what they are doing in the classroom. Often their primary interests lie in more advanced courses and as a consequence these instructors feel academically insulted at having to deal with what they consider to be trivia.

No, the junior college instructor's role as a teacher is not in question, neither by himself nor by his colleagues. What is in question would seem to be his academic identity. Is he really a college teacher or a teacher of grades 13 or 14? Some junior colleges have faced up

to this question and bestowed upon their faculty academic rank and privileges comparable to those of their colleagues at private colleges and at universities.

After questioning some of my colleagues at S.P.J.C., many expressed complete satisfaction. Some qualified their endorsement by stating that they were happy as long as they only had their master's degree. Once they had their Ph.D. they felt that they would have to move on to institutions of greater prestige. To a man they expressed admiration for President Bennett and for their department chairmen. Several who had taught at universities commented on the freedom from bickering and back-biting that seems to be indigenous to these institutions of higher learning. All of them deplored such annoyances as fire drills and bomb-scare drills, necessary in grade school, but hardly so when dealing with mature students on a college level.

It goes without saying that in a paper of this kind one must limit his perspective. Having run the gamut of the junior college echelon from the president to the faculty it would seem that this presentation is already unduly prolix. Therefore in conclusion I should like to leave you with a quotation from Harold Howe, United States Commissioner of Education, who states, "I have always thought that schools should be in a state of controlled unhappiness." If that be true, then I feel that none of us has anything to fear. The only problem is to try to regulate the degree of that unhappiness.

SESSION 4

Curriculums for the Big City Community College

CURRICULUMS FOR THE BIG CITY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

By Hans B. C. Spiegel
Associate Professor of Urban Planning
Columbia University
New York, New York

On April 2, 1966, Mrs. Hattie Mae Dugan left her apartment on Cleveland's East 93rd Street and proceeded to the Liberty Hill Baptist Church. She had been subpoenaed to appear before the hearing of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. After she was sworn in the commission's counsel started the questioning. He established that Mrs. Dugan receives a monthly check for $118 as Aid to Dependent Children payments, of which $60 is spent for rent, and then the questioning continued as follows:

MR. GLICKSTEIN. Can you use food stamps for washing powder?

MRS. DUGAN. No.

MR. GLICKSTEIN. You have to use cash for that?

MRS. DUGAN. You have to use cash. And then in cashing your check, you have to spend $2 or more in order to get your checks cashed because you can't cash them in a bank . . . .

MR. GLICKSTEIN. How are you able to make ends meet, Mrs. Dugan, on the payments that you receive?

MRS. DUGAN. On the payments that I receive, I owe out every month from $10 to $15 of my check in order to make ends meet. I have got a boy friend who will come by and give me a few dollars here and there, and this is the only way that I can survive.

Later the commission counsel inquired:

MR. GLICKSTEIN. Are rats a real problem in your neighborhood?

MRS. DUGAN. Yes, they are. I was living in one apartment where the rats got in the bed with me. My sister is still living in the same building and the rats are jumping up and down. The kids they play with rats like a child would play with a dog or something. They chase them around the house and things like this.

The next questioner was Commissioner Hesburgh, the distinguished president of Notre Dame University. Father Hesburgh wanted to know who owned the building. Mrs. Dugan answered:

MRS. DUGAN. Well, I'll tell you when you start complaining about that particular building no one seems to want to own the building. When I first started to complain, I started with one realty company and I complained so long and loud they sent someone else out and then I complained to him and they sent someone else out and I complained to him and they sent someone else out. . . . The only time anybody really wants the building is when it is time to pay rent and after then nobody wants the building.

I need not continue this description. You will recognize Mrs. Dugan as one of countless urban poor about whom statistics are issued to the point of sometimes numbing us.

Mrs. Dugan's problems are not necessarily caused by her living in the city; presumably many of the conditions described could also occur in the country. (It is useful to remind ourselves, incidentally, that over half of the poor reside outside of the metropolitan areas while two-thirds of the U.S. population resides inside metropolitan areas!) But the city is the context of her existence and city life accentuates her various problems. The very multiplicity of her problems tends to lock her into the city slum, and the city, not having found sufficient correctives for her condition, in turn locks her into her problems. This cycle, with all its viciousness, is still a fact for millions of Americans.

The urban community college can be relevant to Mrs. Dugan right now, before her children may hopefully one day be enrolled as students. The cycle can be broken, but only through comprehensive and massive efforts in community development. What I am about to suggest is that the manpower requirements in this effort are going to be dramatically escalated and that community colleges can play a crucial role in training neighborhood workers and related "urban generalists."

Multidimensional Problems and Monodimensional Solutions: We hear much about the "urban crisis." The conditions of Mrs. Dugan are a key part of this crisis, but it does not stop there. There are pressing problems of traffic, air pollution, water pollution, mental health, housing, lack of open space, technological unemployment, manpower under-utilization, narcotics, juvenile delinquency, alienation. The list is endless. Just as the problems of Mrs. Dugan are multidimensional and form a cycle, so poor housing limits the tax base of the community which limits the ability to deal with traffic and pollution which in turn helps to discourage industry to expand which affects the city's purse and the cycle continues. To be sure, I am oversimplifying here, but the point that I'm trying to make—and in 1967 it really should not need elaboration—is that urban issues are multidimensional and interdependent.

Yet we stubbornly continue to treat urban problems, whether they deal with hardware such as a building program or whether they are softwear such as a welfare program, as essentially monodimensional. We look at a supposedly discreet, isolated problem and try to find a specific solution to it. We look to cure symptoms, when in reality we must correct whole clusters and bundles of problems. We must increasingly search for syndromes. And, by the same token, we look for monodimensional solutions in the form of programs, techniques, courses, payments, new tables of organization, etcetera, when we should be looking for a system with many interlocking parts that may give clues as to the most strategic points of solution-oriented interventions.

It is somewhat of a paradox that the university has contributed to this multidimensionality. There are many good reasons why there should be separate and distinct professions, but often the consumer of professional services reaps a detrimental harvest from this specialization. Lawrence Frank has reminded us, for example that,

> . . . a family may in its varied contacts receive professional care, advice and services from a physician, a nurse, a social worker, a nutritionist, a home economist, a probation officer, a lawyer or judge, a clergyman, a psychologist, a teacher, a guidance counsellor, an industrial relations advisor, a banker, a group worker, etc., each of whom may give the family irreconcilable advice and treatment, guidance on how to live, keep healthy, maintain a home and family, care for and rear children, resolve family discord, and all other aspects of living, especially human relations.

And all the professionals involved here are presumably university trained.

Solutions to urban problems, more and more urbanists are arguing, must be sought through comprehensive, multifaceted programs that are time-phased to achieve given sets of short-range and long-range results. Let me quickly dispel the notion that the urban planner can sit at his console of resources and unerringly pluck out a welfare program here, an economic development scheme there, a code-enforcement activity from a third place and mix them in his administrative crucible to achieve predictable, surefire results. The state of the art is not very advanced.

Attempts at Creating "The Competent Community": The last five years have seen a number of attempts to construct comprehensive programs that may be responsive to the multidimensional problems of the large city, particularly the problems of poverty. Pioneered by the Ford Foundation's "grey areas" programs and by the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, they fed into the thinking that created the War on Poverty, particularly its Community Action Program. The logical outgrowth of these efforts at comprehensive community planning and action is the newly enacted Demonstration Cities Act of 1966. The similarity between these programs is strikingly evident. They all assume the stance of comprehensive community development. Among the assumptions which all four of these programs share are the following:

1. Coordination among, and preferably melding of, formerly distinct and discrete programs is essential.
2. There must be planning to achieve hierarchically agreed upon goals; just focusing existing programs onto a target area may merely provide saturation with the wrong types of tools toward the wrong ends.
3. The public and private sectors must learn to function together better in the planning and execution of programs. One without the other cannot hope to win the battle of the city, nor for that matter, of the rural areas, as farmers have long ago recognized.
4. Administrative structures must be created to conduct the planning and execution with imagination, organizing ability, and considerable muscle.
5. Programs must be able to reach the consumer or client. A crackerjack program to help Mrs. Dugan increase her income will be a dismal failure if it can't get to her and convince her.
6. Instrumentalities must be sought to involve the consumer and client in the planning and execution of progress. Usually, this suggests that citizen participation must occur functionally at the neighborhood level and not be limited to metropolitan boards.

It is interesting to hear the language Congress used in passing the landmark Demonstration Cities Program. Comprehensivness and the foregoing assumptions are written all over it, as this excerpt indicates:

> The purposes of this title are . . . to plan, develop, and carry out locally prepared and scheduled comprehensive city demonstration programs containing new and imaginative proposals to rebuild or revitalize large slum and blighted areas; to expand housing, job, and income opportunities; to reduce dependence on welfare payments; to improve educational facilities and programs; to combat disease and ill health; to reduce the incidence of crime and delinquency; to enhance recreational and cultural opportunities; to establish better access between homes and jobs; and generally to improve living conditions for the people who live in such areas, and to accomplish these objectives through the most effective and economical concentration and coordination of federal, state and local public and private efforts to improve the quality of urban life.

If comprehensiveness and meaningful participation are key programmatic themes in the "new wave" of activities designed to save our cities, then one of the most important end results is the creation of the "competent community." I would prefer to describe the "good city" not only in material or service terms of two cars in every garage, a guaranteed annual wage, an honest cop on the beat, but in terms that are essentially process oriented. To me, the "competent community" is one in which the entire community and its various subsections possess the capacity to deal with here-and-now problems. This implies the ability on the part of both top city administration and grassroots organizations to become aware of issues, possess skills in analyzing them, capacity to marshal resources and to execute solutions within their areas of competence, and willingness to evaluate and follow through on results.

It is the creation to competent communities in the sense of strengthening the process that moves from problem to solution in a comprehensive urban context to which higher education generally, and community colleges specifically, can increasingly become responsive.

The Indirect Assist from the University: The president of an Ivy League university not long ago urged urban universities to "seek solutions to the revolutions" taking place in cities. I am afraid that such statements are likely to be misread by partisans of direct action and champions of social change. We are not about to see the large urban university departments devote all their energies to town and gown relations, to help the local United Fund, to come to the aid of a faltering settlement house, or to train the leadership of the local CORE chapter. There will be such instances, but rightly or wrongly, they will likely be scattered.

The contribution of urban universities will be more indirect. They will engage in research activities, will sponsor conferences, will attempt to conceptualize certain phases of urban development. Their impact on national policy will likely be greater than on their own neighborhood because policy considerations at Washington are better attuned to what most academicians can offer than the nitty gritty of putting a policy—and theory—into practice at the neighborhood level.

In many ways I am dissatisfied about this state of affairs. On the one hand, I quite concur that the university must engage in basic research and conceptual activities about urban development; as the late Kurt Lewin pointed out repeatedly, in the end there is nothing so practical as a good theory. But I also believe that the university can be expected to deliver considerably increased intellectual goods and institutional support to assist its immediate neighbors.

The recently published Ford Foundation report on *Urban Extension* illustrates this contention. The foundation gives a revealing accounting of almost $5 million given to ten institutions "for experiments in applying the nation's university resources directly to the problems of American cities." I found the report bittersweet reading. Sweet in the sense that the grants did stimulate a number of universities to try their wings in this field and also in the fact that at last a few promising ideas were apparently uncovered. Bitter in the sense that so little is yet known of how the university might best be involved and in the sense of apparent reluctance by many universities to make a major institutional commitment to comprehensive community development.

Among the more interesting items in the report was this statement by the president of one of the participating universities who admitted that "the secret of our success is that we didn't give the money to the professors. We hired people for specific missions. And we measured them by their urban affairs activities, and not by the number of articles published in journals." Moreover, the instrumentality that seemed to be most imaginative and productive in its approach was not a university at all, but a nonprofit urban development and social action agency.

I was struck by the fact that none of the educational institutions involved in the Ford project was a community college. I suspect that the community college might have made a more productive showing, because it is probobly more "plugged in" to its community and probably offers assistance to it on a more immediately applicable basis than internationally oriented universities.

Who Will Provide the Manpower? If present trends continue, and I believe they will, there will be many more community development enterprises, and the shortage of trained manpower will become even more acute than it is today. Not only will there be Community Action agencies under the Office of Economic Opportunity, or Demonstration City agencies under the Housing and Urban Affairs Department, or broad-gauged community mental health programs under the National Institute of Mental Health, or comprehensive manpower programs under the reorganized Department of Labor, but there will be many other related endeavors. The federal government is not going to retreat from its commitment to help improve urban life, for moral as well as political reasons. Though there will be ups and downs, new programs and new proposals will continue to flow from Washington; the suggestions on urban affairs by Senator Ribicoff is the most recent example.

Partially as a consequence of federal activity and partially as a result of their own program planning, cities are likely to restructure some of their urban community development programs, they will likely increase this function which in turn will require considerable increase in personnel in these areas. New York City, for example, has recently organized its welfare department, antipoverty operation, youth board, and manpower programs into the Human Resources Administration. New emphasis on community development is also reflected in the Housing and Development Administration. Discussions are going forward about initiating a series of community corporations for neighborhoods and, as has been well publicized, the idea of instituting an ombudsman system and creating "little city halls" is under consideration.

The newly authorized Demonstration Cities Program is another example. Assuming that this program will be funded to the extent authorized by Congress, and making extremely rough calculations I estimate that this program alone could directly generate 65,000 new positions. A number of these would surely be for lower professionals and for nonprofessionals, working directly with the population of the target area. Both the program managers and the community workers would need to be "urban generalists" able to look at the city or the neighborhood, or even the single resident wholistically.

Manpower needs, in short, are going to grow in this field. The newly established National Association for Community Development, despite its revealing acronym of N.A.C.D., will not suffer from bare membership.

The Training Role for Community Colleges: When suggesting a training role for community colleges, I recognize that I am carrying coals to Newcastle. All of you are probably involved in training in one way or the other. And some of you, as is evidenced in the highly suggestive urban development assistant project at Baltimore, are already deeply engaged in preparing personnel for comprehensive urban development. Furthermore, Professor Sylvester's AAJC study on *Technicians for Public Service* gives an excellent conceptual baseline for such training efforts.

The various comprehensive community development tasks for which training is needed are many. These include program manager and administrator, city planner and social planner, urban development professional and assistant, health and social workers, manpower specialist, and the neighborhood worker. It is the neighborhood worker who plays a key role in the development of an area and whose training has been particularly neglected. He has been called by many names: community organizer, advocate, multipurpose worker, outreach person, extension officer. He is at the point where the program and the client or consumer finally meet. In a sense, the neighborhood worker's function represents the moment of truth for a people-oriented program.

Recruiting for such community development positions has traditionally come through professional channels, often utilizing persons who have been trained in schools of social work. The task of community work was considered to demand a great deal of sophistication and skill, and ergo, a high degree of formal education. More recently, proposals have been made to employ residents of low income areas to fulfill some of these tasks. The "nonprofessional" or "subprofessional" or "indigenous worker" has emerged. It is reasoned that articulate persons from the slums who share many of the poverty problems of their neighbors can function well as liaison between the neighborhood and the service agency. Not only are these indigenous community workers more intimately acquainted with the conditions that exist, but they also have easier entry into the neighborhood, can perform some services in a nonpatronizing manner, can amplify and interpret neighborhood sentiments to the agency, etc. In addition, to quote the title of a recent book on the subject, there are created "new careers for the poor."* Rarely is there an opportunity to kill two immense societal problems with a single educational swat: providing viable, genuine employment for persons who provide valuable services to the neighborhood.

Indigenous neighborhood workers should receive considerable preparation for their new tasks, as well as in-service training to move up on the vocational ladder. Since these persons often have only limited educational attainments, new ground must be broken in designing training programs. "Business as usual" with the standard three-credit courses meeting at given hours, utilizing the standard lectures, incurring the standard questions, and culminating in the standard final exams will just not do. For Mrs. Dugan such an educational methodology would be blatently substandard. I would imagine that conceptual learning would be only part of the educational program and that sensitivity training and skill training would play vital parts. A wide range of training methods would

*The utilization of such indigenous persons in subprofessional roles has not been without criticism. One argument, for example, holds that the subprofessional may have access to confidential case material which may be detrimental in his functioning vis-a-vis his neighbors.

probably have to be applied, including a series of field experiences, new ways of evaluating these experiences, role-playing and other simulation techniques, case studies, and utilizations where appropriate of programed learning devices.

Nor are we quite out of the woods of "standard educational procedures" after revising the training design for Mrs. Dugan and her colleagues. Mrs. Dugan will as a neighborhood worker, relate to various institutions and individuals who also should be exposed to training. The boss of Mrs. Dugan and the boss of the boss, and the community institutions supporting her, need to function together. Comprehensive community development, thus, demands not only the training of a key individual for a particular function, but the training of an entire system.

Needless to say, there are many questions that need exploration and experimentation. For example:

1. How can such community workers best be identified and recruited? From what we know about Mrs. Dugan, I think she would make a crackerjack neighborhood worker. Can this subjective judgment be supported?

2. What precise roles and functions could such workers best perform in a given neighborhood? What statement of goals would be most suggestive? What has been the experience of the various organizations, particularly those funded under the Community Action Program, that have utilized indigenous persons? Are "aide" positions the only ones that can be suggested?

3. What training designs seem to be most productive? How can or should conceptual materials be fed into the training process? What are the requirements of trainers or teachers? What field experiences seem most educative? Should most training occur on an in-service or pre-service basis?

4. How can the performance of indigenous community workers best be evaluated? Do they threaten the established professionals? Their neighbors? Does a position as worker lead to alienation from the low income area? How can evaluation of these factors best occur and feed back into the training process?

It seems to me that the community college is uniquely suited to answer these questions. These institutions might well engage in demonstrations, experimentations, action-research, design formulation, and program planning concerning the training of indigenous neighborhood workers. They might well be able to strengthen their resources to engage in the actual training, either on a curricular or contract basis. As a consequence, they might well be viewed as the major national resource in this training endeavor.

The Context for Training: I suppose people like Mrs. Dugan and other articulate residents of the slum can be trained in a gleamingly antiseptic community college located in a "horsy" suburb—but not easily. The broader context in which training takes place is crucial to the learning eperience. What matters is not the location of the institution itself, but the educational philosophy which it expresses in administration, curriculum, and extracurriculum; in short, its institutional posture toward deprived neighborhoods.

I don't know how many community colleges have their physical presence in or near low-income center-city locations. Perhaps it might be suggested that the most symbolic location for the urban community college would have one end of the campus in the slums and the other

end with a clear view of city hall. Such a prototype community college in the large city, it seems to me, would make its presence felt at both ends and act as an independent link between them.

But being located in the right urban spot is not enough. All of us know of institutions which are, in fact, educational ghettos, insulated from the rest of the neighborhood by a Berlin wall of indifference and not infrequently by imposing iron fences. It is obvious that such an institution will have a much harder time reaching low-income residents of the area for training purposes than the college that has had students and faculty involved in poverty areas, and a curriculum that is attuned to the problems of urban life.

It occurs to me that the optimal training situation would be a community college located in the slum whose highest educational objective was the eradication of slum conditions. One of its prime tasks would be the training of nonprofessionals, subprofessions, aides, and professional neighborhood workers. Perhaps half of the student body might be drawn directly from the adjoining neighborhoods; the rest from middle class homes with an interest in community-development careers. This mix of student body would in itself be educative. The design of the college structures might imaginatively extend into the community and blend with it. Rehabilitated brownstones could be used, new buildings with classrooms on the first story and residences on the next three might be possible; college structures would be conscientiously designed to double as community facilities. An experimental neighborhood multipurpose center might be conducted under college auspices. The phrase that claims "the community is our laboratory and our teacher" would be vibrantly alive in such a community college.

The above is perhaps somewhat idealized, but it seems to me it is a feasible and fundable ideal. The adaptibility of education processes and educational institutions to the problems of the city will help determine whether we can move from the four-fifths affluent society to the truly competent society. Thus, the training of Mrs. Dugan as a neighborhood worker represents an educational challenge of the highest order and a service to the nation of the highest priority.

CURRICULUMS FOR THE BIG CITY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Recorder's Report by Charles Donnelly, President
Flint Community Junior College
Flint, Michigan

Dorothy M. Knoell, Urban College Study, State University of New York, mentioned the problem of the inner-city college in the creation of a competent community in terms of civic and personal competence. She raised the question of how do we do it and how far do the community colleges want to buy in. Do we want one part of it or all? Occupational competence we achieve, but do we go beyond this to the subcollegiate level?

It is encouraging that Washington is willing to take a total approach to the problem.

The number one problem is taking programs to the inner city. How do we reach out to these people?

A second problem is the basic literary aspect. Do we adopt a broad concept to train competent adults?

A third problem is the proper mixing of occupational and general education.

Dr. Knoell asked what can be developed so that the university and community college have cooperating roles, so that the city and state have cooperating roles. Whose fiscal responsibility is it—federal or community?

Allen T. Bonnell, President of the Community College of Philadelphia, discussed the commitments and curriculums for community colleges, pointnig out that the urban community college has a unique commitment. He raised the question of whether our task is to respond directly or indirectly to Mrs. Dugan's dilemma. Do we train her? Her bosses? Or her children?

Dr. Bonnell mentioned that the urban affairs curriculum set up in Philadelphia in 1966 was a broadly based public service program and that it attracted people employed in public agencies and others interested in new programs. One of the problems with students in the program was that they were interested in transferring their credits to a four-year college and not interested in helping solve urban problems by staying in the program.

City planners were not really concerned with the problem but more with getting personnel.

He suggested that the curriculum should be modified from kindergarten through the university all down the line. Even people in the suburbs are dependent on the metropolitan area.

The questions are where, how, and what to teach. He stated that the basic technical skills must be complimented by social and behaviorial sciences, communication skills—general education.

Walter Garcia, President of Modesto Junior College in California, questioned the assumption that the nineteenth century New England town is the ideal and that we approach our problems with that perceptual set. He stated that the proposals—to alleviate problems of big cities are analogous to rural developments.

He also doubted whether the rural pattern should be carried to the city and stated poverty is really more serious in rural areas. The community college should not develop urban workers like extension workers. The problem of isolation and alienation are severe in rural areas.

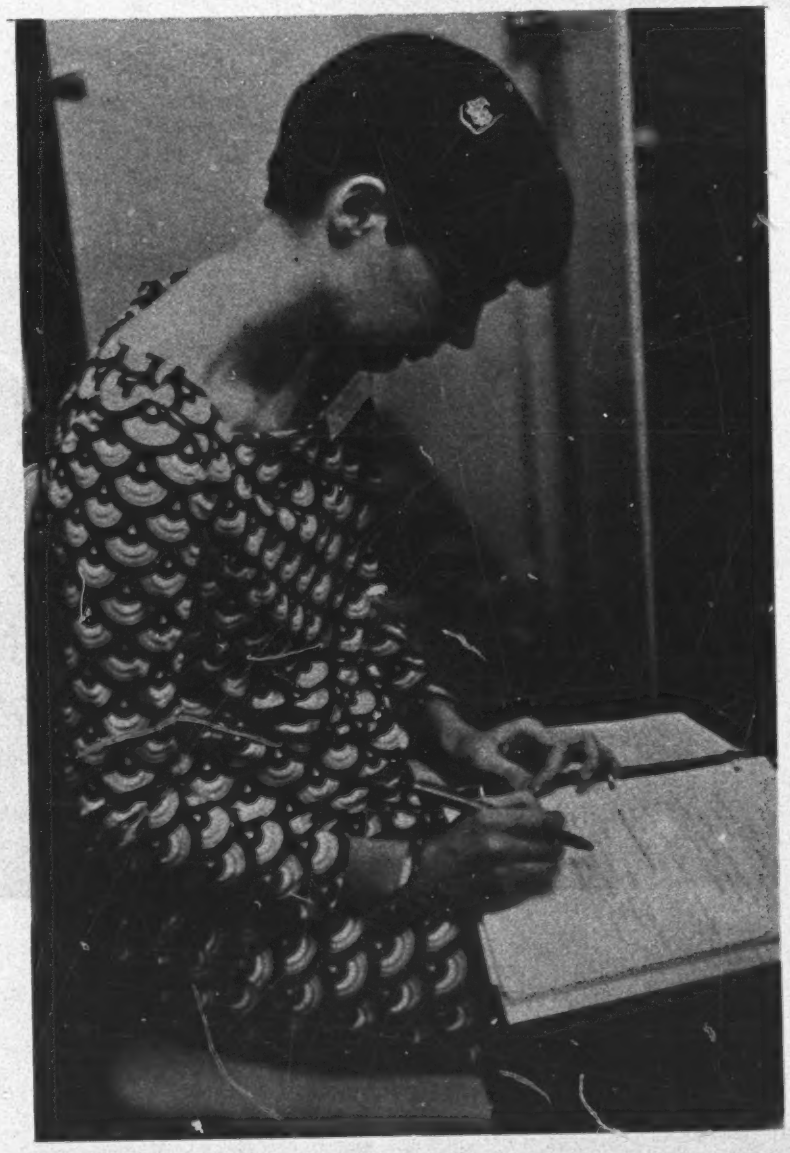
The approach to poverty must be multifaceted. Vocational training is useless unless basic education comes first. It is assumed that the focus of the community college must be on the disadvantaged but Dr. Garica questions whether there are not centers of advantaged, too. The community college serves a highly diversified student body not just the disadvantaged.

Each community college must decide its own philosophy. The college must move out beyond its campus into the community and be a change agent as much as it can and also ally itself with other change agents. It can probably best be financed on a contract basis until the programs are built into budgets.

Dr. Spiegel replied that this subject is an art rather than a science. He agreed that the role of a community college is not that of a social agency but one whose primary function is the generation and passing on of knowledge. The community college can be a partner with social agencies and link social welfare and administrative city functions coordinating these with research and training functions.

If the community college doesn't do this job, who will?

There are not now many programs in urban development, but these should be developed to help bridge the gap between education and the community.



SESSION 5

The Students We Teach Today

THE STUDENTS WE TEACH TODAY

By Nevitt Sanford, Director
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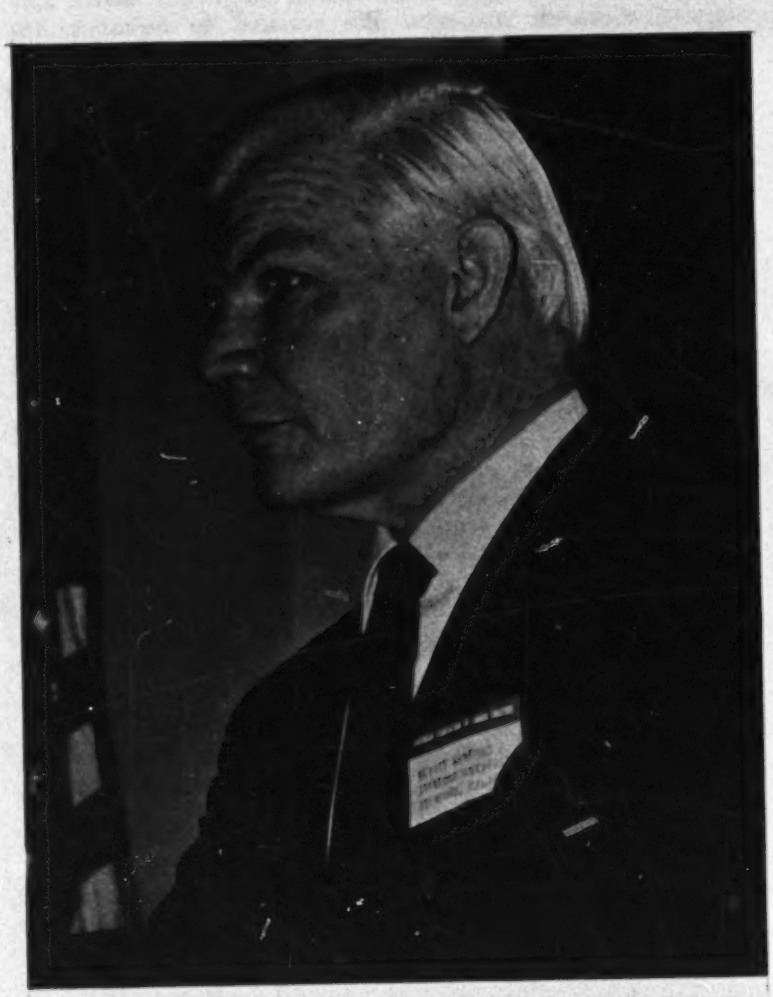
Stanford, California



If one works in academic institutions over a long period of time, he is impressed not so much by the differences among generations of students as by the similarities. In watching filmed interviews with some of the Berkeley students who took part in the 1964 revolt, I was struck by how much they resembled the young people of my own day and those whom I knew at Vassar during the 1950's. No doubt there is something new in the current attempt by students to reform the educational system and to have a greater voice in determining their own education; but the behavior of those at Berkeley was not uncharacteristic of college students of any period. And the adults involved also behaved true to form.

All generations of college students have in common their youth and their developmental status. Typically they have problems of identity and self-esteem. They are idealistic and easily disillusioned, especially when the adult figures they admire seem to have feet of clay. They are torn between loyalty to old values and to others newly found. They demand independence, but need assurance that adult authority stands firm. At the same time, most undergraduates are still free of the responsibilities and commitments that people assume as they enter adulthood. This is why a student can join a march in Mississippi one year and decide in the next to become a corporation lawyer.

In view of this special freedom, adults in our society sometimes depend upon the youth to initiate social change. They are counted upon to do the kinds of things that adults, because of their commitments, are in no position to undertake. This may also explain our mixed feelings toward them; for on the one side we tend to live vicariously in them, to identify ourselves with some of their radical or offbeat doings, but at the same time they make us nervous because we are not entirely sure they are going to settle down in a few years and be just like everybody else (though, of course, they nearly always do this). I can recall the disappointment with which a group of businessmen greeted the news that college students on the whole are basically conservative. These men had supposed that all college students were like the activist minority, and that this was how it was supposed to be—radical when young and conservative thereafter.

In a rapidly changing society such as ours, we should expect that people brought up in one period will naturally differ in some ways from people brought up in another period. Students are affected, often in a deep and lasting way, by the climate of opinion that prevails during their college years. In the research at Vassar College (Sanford, 1956; Freedman, 1962), we studied various generations of alumnae: the class of 1901 to the class of 1954. In the attitudes and values of each group, we could see a reflection of the climate that prevailed when that group was in college.

A college climate is determined in part by the faculty, who, like the Vassar alumnae, bring to the present many values from their own college years. Our senior faculty of today, for example, was influenced strongly by the depression which denied to some the leisure for a liberal education and led many to set a high value upon economic security. With this background, they were in no position to resist a trend toward specialization in education or to devote themselves primarily to the university's more liberal values.

Among student generations, we know most about those of the 1950's. Various researchers found the students of that period to be passive, conformist, uninterested in politics, focused on their own private interests, fond of comfort, and eager for a secure place in society. In young women this syndrome was marked by a flight into femininity and, among the Vassar girls we studied, by a desire to have about four children as quickly as possible: a woman's place was in the home, where she would meet her warrior at the door with a bowl of hot wine as he came home from work.

These attitudes were influenced not only by a faculty withdrawal into the areas of their professional concerns but by the state of our society during the fifties. During that period there was a relative shortage of young people of college age, which had resulted from the lower birth rate of the depression years. At the same time, there was great emphasis on economic growth and national security. Such a combination produces conservative ideology. We find in the educational thinking of the fifties a heavy accent on science, special programs for the gifted, high standards and increasing toughness in education, and a gradual speeding up of everything. Education was geared to produce young people who would strengthen the society and its economy.

Colleges took advantage of this situation to upgrade themselves. As the government began pouring money into higher education, especially at the graduate level, in order to speed the training of people who were needed in the

increasingly complex machinery of society, professors took advantage of the new generosity to further their own specialties. In the late forties, for example, we in the psychology department at Berkeley saw our chance. With grants from the Veterans Administration and from the U. S. Public Health Service, we introduced new programs of graduate training and embarked on larger, more specialized research projects. We worked to advance our science, and it did not occur to us that the other departments were doing the same thing and that the result would be a serious neglect of undergraduate education.

Undergraduate students, however, did not object. They could see that by doing what their teachers said, by taking full advantage of the new oportunities for training, they would move into society faster and find places that would be suitably rewarding. In this context, the mid-1950's White House Conference on Education had a hollow sound. Educators spoke of the great aims of liberal education, but their actions revealed a primary interest in preparing young people professionally and vocationally.

Within the past decade, however, social needs have shifted. No one is complaining about the shortage of young people, for we seem to have an endless supply. The economy, bolstered anyway by automation, puts less pressure on young people to jump into jobs merely to keep the machinery going. Meanwhile, more than a few students have been inspired by the Peace Corps and the civil-rights movement to pursue larger goals than getting good grades, being admitted into a good graduate school, and having a good job.

In contrast, most colleges are still reacting to the needs and fashions ofthe 1950's—still engaging in a sort of assignments race, which may improve their standing among academic institutions but which cannot improve education.

Another source of student unrest is the new meaning of the conception that colleges stand *in loco parentis.* Originally the conception implied not only discipline but generous, personal help. As colleges have grown and "raised their standards," however, the nurturing functions of the college have been eroded or neglected while the control and punishment functions have been maintained. This in itself creates a revolutionary climate. In family life, the child who is ignored except when it is necessary to punish him may soon be on the road to becoming a rebel or delinquent. Students for many years surrendered their rights as citizens in exchange for the special care and attention that parents or college were expected to offer. Now, with the care and nurturance gone, students not inappropriately demand their rights. This is not because students are less in need of what colleges might do to develop them; it is because they find themselves in a situation that is essentially unfair and would induce rebellious feelings in people of any age.

The dissatisfaction of undergraduates is echoed today, as it seldom was in the past, by the graduate students. Before the recent, drastic expansion of graduate programs, students could feel that upon admission to a department, they were joining the community of scholars. Today, however, they suffer increasingly from the same kinds of pressures and constraints, the same burden of meaningless work, as do undergraduates or even high school students. As departments have grown larger and more professionalized, traditional communities of scholars, embodying graduate students and professors with whom they worked closely, have been disappearing. The graduate student is being confronted with a series of hurdles that involve even more serious consequences than do undergraduate tests and is under pressure every minute of his day to think and act within the confines of his profession's requirements. He must, in effect, surrender himself to his profession. He cannot investigate what he is curious about but only what can be investigated by approved methods. He has little time to explore other fields or even to get beyond a specialized area of his own field, because whoever is in charge of his work often demands more than can reasonably be done. He cannot ask questions of a sort that might broaden his mind because he cannot afford to display any ignorance. He cannot converse in the language of educated men because this might be interpreted as professional impurity.

Graduate students are cynical about this system. They say that they will stay with it only until they get their "union card"; then they will be free to inquire as they please. But even before they receive their degrees, they begin to be aware that the constraints will be nearly as great after they have actually entered the profession. Acceptance of graduate school requirements brings about an identification with the system that is very difficult to shake off later.

Graduate students also have many occasions to lament their wasted years as undergraduates. They specialized in those years, thinking that in graduate school they would find freedom. Now, when they look back from their new vantage point, they see that they lost the best opportunity to pursue their genuine interests and explore new ones when they were undergraduates. Hence they have a natural inclination to relive their own undergraduate years vicariously through the students who are now entering college. Or if they had a good undergraduate experience, they feel sympathy for their younger brothers in the large universities.

In sum, graduate students have been changing sides, as many did at Berkeley in the fall of 1964. Finding the channels into "management" too narrow, the effort to negotiate them too costly in other values, the rewards of belonging to the governing body too remote or otherwise dubious, they have been casting their lot with the "workers." As leaders of student movements, they have the advantage of longer experience at the university; and as future teachers, they have a greater stake in reform than undergraduates, who could decide to put up with a bad situation until summer or graduation.

Another mark of today's undergraduate, as compared with those of ten years ago, is their greater sophistication. This is a credit to improved education in the high schools. It seems also to be a result of greater mobility and experience of the world. Many students have studied or traveled abroad, been in the Peace Corps, or had extraordinary experiences in social action. Professors who have been shielded by the lecture system may not realize how critical some students have become, how impatient with perfunctory teaching and textbook generalizations. No longer willing to take things on faith, they want to know the sources of information, and even how the data were collected. When a representative of the State Department spoke at Stanford, at a "teach in" on the war in Vietnam, he cited a precise number of North Vietnamese said to be fighting in the South. The students laughed at him. What aroused their scorn was not the claim of infiltration but the pretense that our government knew exactly how many had crossed the border.

In the new situation that has developed, we may anticipate educational innovation and reform. Changes will be guided by increased understanding of students' needs, but it may take overt protests to set them in motion. Experimentation has been promoted by educators on many campuses during the past ten years but not much happened until after the 1964 revolt at Berkeley. In 1963, Professor Joseph Tussman of that university first proposed his experimental college, a two-year program on the model provided originally by Meiklejohn at Wisconsin, but action was delayed until student protest had aroused fears and guilt within the faculty.

In the years immediately ahead, there will be less accent on educating students to man our system and more on educating them to participate in its benefits. Prominent among these benefits is an opportunity for a broader education—an education which helps us to enjoy a world beyond our jobs, as well as to adapt resource-

fully to new roles produced by technological and social change.

Students are sternly challenged by the world as it now is, but to face the changes we know will occur, they need a triple preparation. As future jobholders, they must be taught how to grow in their work and to meet demands now unthought of; as citizens, to help direct the uses of technology which might otherwise go its own way; and as men, to discover through the arts and humanities a perspective broader than the demands of work or even the immediate society. Since 1965—known by some as "The Year of the Student"—educators have seemed increasingly willing to meet this triple challenge. A colleague has told me that at the Danforth Conference on Higher Education professors and deans turned away from previous arguments that an interest in student needs would transform the college into a kind of psychiatric community. Instead, they showed a growing concern with students as individuals—their developmental status, their feelings, their purposes—and with detailed planning of educational improvements. For a long time now I have been arguing that we should encourage students to criticize the education we arrange for them, and that we should consider their suggestions thoughtfully. In the light of our sudden upsurge of sympathy with students, however, perhaps I should add a reminder that they also need reassurance that the institution is in the hands of authoritative adults. At colleges such as Antioch, where students are given all the rope they can use, officials soon discover how conservative students are when allowed to govern themselves. Innovation is encouraged neither by a denial of adult leadership nor by an effort to keep the students "in their place," but only by a willingness to listen to them and then to do what their actions show they need.

THE STUDENTS WE TEACH TODAY

By Robert L. Lewis, Trustee
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There are several reasons why you should completely ignore my comments.

First, I am not an educator. In straining to find the peculiar qualification which justifies my addressing this august and cultured group, the sole academic distinction that I can claim is that I was the only Jewish two-miler in the history of Hamilton College.

A second reason to ignore me is that I am out of step with the world in that I am prejudiced toward the traditional in education. This prejudice was developed, incidentally, as a result of a nontraditional childhood. I did not attend school until I was eleven and a half years old. My brother and I were diminutive. Cute. We had good singing voices, agile legs, and were quick to learn. My parents recognized the talents, taught us some song and dance routines, and exploited us in vaudeville. I started performing at the age of five; and six and a half years later the truant officer caught up to us. We were finally enrolled in school as a condition of my parents' probation, but since puberty invaded our soprano registers, no one cared. That was about thirty-six years ago—before the general acceptance and proliferation of psychological testing—and the school's solution to the problem of what to do with me was simple. The logic was exquisite: eleven and a half years old, never been to school=first grade! (Incidentally, that was the first and only time in my life that I was the tallest person in my group.)

It is not unexpected then, that I remember meeting with my brother after class on that first day. Considering the busyness and activity of our lives until then, we had difficulty adjusting to the thought that it was only 3:00 o'clock in the afternoon and that we had the rest of the day to ourselves. It was then that I became enamored of the traditional in education.

A third reason to ignore me is that I am apparently out of step with the world in that I am prejudiced toward a policy of nonintimidation whether it be in the field of education, or any other field.

Among my other prejudices are these:

1. *In favor of* quoting Russian proverbs
2. *Against* nervous and exotic answers to simple questions and
3. *Against* swift, self-conscious, and compromising reaction to demand or criticism.

As to My Various Prejudices: Since I am neither an educational psychologist nor a sociologist, I express them without embarrassment. It is in this mood that I elaborate on Dr. Sanford's statement that among other needs students demand the assurance that adult authority stands firm. I believe there is a categorized but inviolable role for faculty and administration, and a categorized and inescapable role for students. As a result of the part that intimidation has played in the recent shocking struggles between these two categories; as a result of your tendency toward the nervous and exotic answer, your tendency toward hasty, self-conscious and compromising reaction, these roles have in many instances been abandoned, in some instances confused, and, in some others reversed. As to the student rebellions, protests, and demonstrations I hasten to say that I deliver no judgment today concerning their moral or social proprieties or improprieties, or the political advantages or disadvantages. Because my quarrel is not with the student. My quarrel is with you! My quarrel is with how you are reacting to him! I submit that the student chants one thing, but means another. I submit that you ignore one of the reassurances he really asks for and sorely needs. I indulge in a general accusation. You seem to have forgotten the transitive quality of the professorial infinitives "to teach" or "to grade"; you seem to have forgotten the transitive quality of the administrative infinitives "to regulate," "to control," and "to discipline"; and you seem to have forgotten the scholastic gerundive clauses of "learning what is taught; studying what is assigned; and conforming to regulation, control, and discipline." You have discredited these respective roles to the point where you have permitted the term "to teach" to be tortured out of its context of informing and inspiring—now to be a dirty word, equated with dulling the senses or stifling thought. You have permitted the term "to regulate" to be tortured out of its context of creating a climate of order in which learning may be pursued—now to be equated with academic brutality. You have permitted the term "to obey or to conform" to be tortured out of its context of meeting with dignity and verve the demands and challenges of life, now to be equated with servility. The student has not done this. You have done this.

In your nervousness you have permitted innovations in education to the point where we now regularly see the development of students grading teachers, students creating curriculums, and students disciplining faculty and administration. If you seem to have feet of clay, as Dr. Stanford has stated, it is because, frankly, you are less than heroes. You are less than courageous in standing up to intimidating demands and less than responsive to one of the real meanings of the scholastic chants. You have created the vacuum that nature abhors, that the students cannot tolerate, and that he rushes in to fill.

Russian proverb: Since when does the fiddle pick the tune?

Dr. Stanford speaks of the students demanding "reform." I insist that one of the reforms implicit in the cries and chants of our students today is a reform of your own unwillingness to assume your role of authority and control; a reform of your apprehension at making strong, irrepressible and meaningful demands upon your students, and a reform of your submissiveness to *their* every demand. Our students are crying for boundaries and limitations (as eagerly as they will then, properly, seek to burst them), and you are not responsive.

I express these thoughts in gravity, but certainly not as an adversary of our students. If you are to prepare them for life—an unpardonably presumptous attitude, but your role nonetheless—you must realize that it is as important for them to experience the standard pattern of conformity as well as what has become the equally standard pattern of nonconformity; it is as important to experience obedience (not servility) as it is to learn disobedience; it is as important to learn self-control as it is to learn self-expression. It is as important to experience the weight of tradition as it is to experience the exhilaration of innovation.

It is not easy to run against today's tide, and I do not urge you to do so in opposition to our youngsters, but in deep love for them. You historians present will know that I am borrowing the expression of a great man when I say "My clients are the children"—the youth of our day.

In our own Cuyahoga Community College, which serves the Greater Cleveland Community, there occurred recently an event of which, in closing, I must tell you. It is the autumn of 1965. The college has operated for two years—since September of 1963. It is the first community college in Ohio, controlled, incidentally, by its own locally appointed board. It exists notwithstanding the unsophisticated opposition of public and private colleges within the state, the former of which do not wish to share the tax dollar or relinquish an iota of control of public higher education; the latter of which do not wish to share the enrollment potential that they cannot accommodate anyway. Its opening classes number 3,000 students; in September of 1964 there are 6,000, and in September of 1965 there are 9,000. The state subsidy has been inadequate and capital funds are not yet available. During the past two calendar years the college has continued its operations because the voters of the county have approved two levies. It appears that the college cannot continue on full scale unless the voters vote to tax themselves a third time; unless a third levy is now passed—the third, remember, within two calendar years. We have been demanding of our students; there are no frills to their academic lives; they attend classes in rented halls and buildings scattered throughout the city, but we insist upon quality in their work, propriety in their conduct, and endurance of inconveniences. As to higher education, they are "last chance" youngsters or "only chance" youngsters to whom our community college *is* that chance. We tell them of the critical situation and ask their help in such manner as they may see fit to give it. The challenge is given and accepted. They form their own campaigning groups, and conduct house to house solicitations in support of the issue. The levy is passed by a resounding majority, and the following day our city sees the most refreshing student demonstration in the history of our recent past. With remarkable spontaneity they gather in the public square of Cleveland, five miles up the main avenue with placards reading—and chanting in unison—"thank you voters."

Considering the range of my remarks, it is pure surplusage for me to point out to you that there is at least one more reason for you to ignore me. And that is my one additional prejudice—a prejudice toward oversimplification. But permit me to explain. The attitude that I recommend for faculty and administration is neither solution nor panacea; but it is an attitude which should not be ignored, forgotten, or abandoned. There are times and there are places when it must be manifested and when the concept of control must become the practice of control. There is perhaps as much texture and substance to be added to our students' lives by teaching them the concept of acceptance as by permitting them the luxury of rejection. This is all I really propose.

There are two more Russian proverbs which I must quote to you. They are as follows:

First, and this you should remember always: make yourself into a sheep and you shall surely meet a wolf nearby.

And second, and notwithstanding what I said about ignoring me, hear this: when an old crow croaks, listen well.

the SAN FRANCISCO HILTON

SESSION 6

Staff Development: Faculty Orientation and In-Service Programs

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: FACULTY ORIENTATION AND IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

By Glynn E. Clark, Vice-President
Meramec Community College
St. Louis, Missouri

One of the major problems facing administrators of comprehensive community colleges is that of attracting and maintaining a capable and highly motivated faculty to teach a rapidly increasing number of students. This important problem is complicated by the fact that there are few university programs specifically planned for the preparation and education of faculty members for community junior colleges. Hence, our institutions not only face a mammoth problem of recruitment, but also, a less obvious but very important responsibility to provide orientation for newly appointed members of the faulty.

In discussing orientation of faculty during the period before classroom teaching begins, this brief report is based upon the premise that a carefully planned preteaching orientation program will result in better faculty morale and better teaching and learning in the classroom. Therefore, it is an important responsibility of administrators to provide this service.

It is proposed that the following goals are appropriate goals during the preteaching period:

1. To establish a readiness, even an eagerness, to teach the heterogenous student population of a comprehensive community college

2. To provide insight into the primary responsibilities of a member of the faculty in the college concerned—including enough information regarding operating procedures to give instructors confidence and understanding

3. To give understanding, insofar as possible, of the social system of the institution—in other words, "How does one get along in this outfit?"

4. In essence—to give a clear picture of the nature of a comprehensive community college and the role of the individual faculty member.

Douglas Burris indicated that it would be in order to describe briefly what we do in the Junior College District of St. Louis—St. Louis County and specifically at Meramec Community College, not as an example of what should be done, but rather to get to specifics and to stimulate discussion. So, without claim of originality or desirability, this is what we do:

By way of explanation, each campus of the J.C.D. selects and recommends for appointment all employees of that campus. However, we receive assistance from a central personnel office in the mechanics of the employment process.

In the interest of simplicity, this report will focus upon the beginning instructor, fresh from the graduate school, who in some cases will not have visited the campus before accepting a position. Generally, the procedures are similar for *all* new appointees.

I. University placement offices are provided the usual information in advance of the visit of our interviewers.

We emphasize that a teaching credential is not required but we are deeply interested in ability, or promise of ability, in classroom teaching. Applicants must have a minimum of a master's degree in their teaching field.

We emphasize in all literature and communications with candidates that our interest is in instructors who are willing and eager to work with students of a wide range of abilities and motivation.

We make it clear that we seek individuals who will enjoy the challenge of helping shape a rapidly growing comprehensive community college district.

We stress that, as an open-door institution, which accepts any graduate of an accredited high school, we select, retain and promote faculty on the basis of good teaching.

We explain that the career-oriented curriculums are as important as the college parallel programs.

We point out that we plan to be top flight community colleges and are proud of our place in higher education. This is in keeping with Roger Garrison's findings regarding the quest for professional identity among junior college faculty.

II. The employment interview: We find the employment interview at the university placement office never gives time to convey all of the important information we want applicants to have—hence, we encourage qualified candidates to visit the campus. This does not always happen, but, it is our hope that as our rate of growth slows campus visits will become a definite part of the application process.

We emphasize our differences as compared with a four-year liberal arts school or university since most applicants are somewhat familiar with the way of life in graduate schools but are unfamiliar with junior colleges. The following items must be explained if misunderstanding is to be avoided:

Heavy teaching load—15 credit hours

The possibility of teaching some evening classes

The great amount of work in developing courses and curriculums in a new institution, in planning buildings, in committee work to help evolve institutional policies

Classroom visits for the purpose of improving instruction and evaluating instructors—this is very important for those oriented to teaching in four-year colleges and universities.

Campus supervisory administrative structure (chain of command)

Regulations regarding outside employment

Academic rank

Salary schedule

Oportunities for creative and experimental work

Philosophy of the J.C.D.

III. Activities subsequent to the employment interview: On the day following the appointment of a new member to the faculty by our board of trustees a printed contract is mailed to the applicant by the central personnel office.

Literature describing these items is forwarded at the same time the contract is mailed:

1. Fringe benefits

2. Missouri state retirement system

3. Organizational structure of the district and staff procedures.

In addition to the above mail-out the campus communicates with the new member of the faculty. This will vary from campus to campus but at Meramec the following steps are taken promptly after the signed contract is returned:

1. A letter of welcome is sent by the campus director, with a copy to the division chairman, encouraging the instructor to start preparation for his teaching assignment. (The division chairman follows up on this.) If the new member has not been on campus, he is urged to visit as soon as possible.

2. From this point on the division chairman is responsible for sending tentative teaching assignments, along with course outlines, reading lists and desk copies of the texts. The new instructor is invited to request any special library acquisitions that he will want.

3. The community relations office of the district sends items of interest, particularly the very readable monthly newsletter written by the president, and selected news releases from time to time.

IV. Newly appointed faculty members report one week early. Our division chairmen and our newly appointed faculty members report one week before the returning faculty members—and of course our administrators are always on duty! This permits us to work intensively with our new staff members. Although it is Labor Day week, and, therefore, only four working days are available, with careful planning a great many things important to an institution can be done. (At Meramec alone we had twenty-one new people last fall and we expect thirty new appointees next fall.)

Last fall a program was planned by our division chairmen and deans. It included:

Tuesday

Meeting at off-campus restaurant
9:00 a.m.-10:00 a.m.
"The Image of the Community College" campus director
10:00 a.m.-10:30 a.m.—coffee break
10:30 a.m.-Noon—"Mechanics of Operation," division chairmen
Noon—Luncheon and introduction of key members of district staff
Afternoon—Meetings in divisional or technical department groups or student personnel.

Wednesday and Thursday

Divisional meetings with deans as resource persons with emphasis upon what we do, why we do it, how we have tried to do it.

An essential document, the campus *Faculty Manual*, is issued. It serves as a text for the division chairmen as they explain campus policies and procedures. The *Manual* provides convenient answers to questions that are frequently raised by new employees.

"Shake down" to be assured that everyone is ready to start teaching after registration.

We rely heavily upon our division chairmen to work informally, yet with a check list of things to be accomplished. (No formal speeches after the first morning.)

Friday

Bus tour including new staff from all three campuses. Visit central office and all three campuses to provide understanding of the organization of the district and to become acquainted with other staff members.

We think this period before registration is the ideal time to ready new faculty members for their assignments. The pace can be unhurried and the key people can devote careful attention to the important responsibility of helping newcomers feel at home and acquiring an understanding of their role.

During registration week the new faculty members serve primarily as observers under the supervision of their division chairmen or an experienced member of the faculty.

In our rapidly expanding comprehensive community colleges it is essential that we give careful attention before classes start to the matter of orientation of new faculty. The time spent on this activity will, in my opinion, be time well spent and will result in improved morale and efficiency. In the early, hectic years of development it is always hard to find time to do a thorough job of preparing new staff members for their place in the college. I know we do not do as much as we would like to do. Indeed, it is my hope that in the discussion period there will be suggestions which will improve our approach to the problem.

Certainly, the matter of orientation is not complete before classes start—rather it has only begun.

Whether these brief remarks will help stimulate good discussion I do not know. However, I am grateful for the opportunity to participate in this program. I think it will help our campus by causing this speaker to review our procedures and to resolve to be more attentive to the matter of planning for orientation of some thirty new faculty at Meramec Community College next fall. Thank you. May you have every position filled next fall when you hold orientation!

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: FACULTY ORIENTATION AND IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

By Walter Coultas, Superintendent
Los Rios Junior College District
Sacramento, California

In developing an in-service training program, probably the first thing that we should do is to take a page out of the audio-tutorial systems approach to education and formulate the objective of the program. These objectives will probably vary from college to college, depending upon the philosophy, organization, the student population, and the academic and/or vocational aims.

The in-service training program should be developed at the time that decisions are being made as to the new instructors to be employed. Each division or department will have specific needs. Departments will want to balance their staff with newly graduated individuals, old-timers in the education field, a subject matter specialist in a particular area, to strengthen a possible weakness or to implement innovative teaching methods, etc. The development of these specific needs within the departments of the college will of necessity determine the objectives of the particular in-service training program to be offered in that year. In-service training programs will vary from year to year, depending upon the requirements of teacher employment.

The hiring process itself is a form of in-service training. What is said to new prospects, the attitudes and prejudices of the recruiting officer, are bound to have a lasting effect on the new employees.

The objectives as established in the Los Rios District for the 1967-68 year are as follows:

1. To provide orientation to the role of the junior college in higher education and to develop an appreciation of its unique characteristics and problems
2. To develop an understanding of the students with whom our instructors will work
3. To develop knowledge and understanding of the operational and functional roles at present and the desired goal for the future
4. To improve the instructional program and to search out the best ways to meet our stated objectives
5. To give an understanding of the instructional program at the college, including special offerings, physical facilities, and supportive services
6. To develop an understanding of the philosophy, operational procedures and scope of responsibility at the divisional level
7. To become acquainted with the personnel of the college and individual contributions and responsibilities in the overall divisional program
8. To develop an attitude of constructive cooperation between new instructors, faculty colleagues, administration and division chairmen.

These objectives are broad and general and are applicable to the overall program. Each division or department will develop the specific objectives necessary to carry out the purposes of the original hiring decisions.

The means used to achieve the objectives, either general or specific, are many and varied. Group meetings, department meetings, individual one-to-one conferences with division chairmen, fellow teachers and administrators, visiting consultants—are just a few. Care must always be exercised that our in-service training program does not create the idea that the major purpose is conformity or carrying out the will of the establishment. New teachers must be encouraged in their desire to grow, to try new things, to maintain their enthusiasm and spirit of creativity.

Each institution will find the best way to achieve its objectives if the objectives have been well thought out in advance.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: FACULTY ORIENTATION AND IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

By Michael Brick, Associate Professor
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York, New York

The need for in-service training programs for the junior college faculty is a crucial one, yet it is a need that has been largely overlooked by junior college educators. To support this statement I might mention that in reviewing recent literature I found scant attention was accorded the topic.

What then is the justification for in-service training programs?

First, I think that the incessant expansion of the horizons of knowledge challenges each individual faculty member to keep abreast of his specialization whether that specialization be a humanistic study or in the area of technology. "Futurists" are constantly indicating to us the changing state of knowledge and the changes we can look forward to by the year 2,000. In case anyone might take comfort that the year 2,000 sounds so far away, let me point out that it is only thirty-three years away. In addition, it is quite obvious that men are employed at occupations today that were nonexistent twenty years ago and will be nonexistent twenty years in the future. Change is the only constant and one's knowledge can soon become obsolete.

Second, I hold that the education of faculty members is never completed by the termination of formal course work, and that they are obligated to grow intellectually regardless of their level of preparation, experience, or seniority.

Third, I believe that faculty members new to the realm of the junior college require a means whereby they can adjust to this distinctive educational setting. The heterogeneous student bodies to be found on typical community college campuses demand special competencies on the part of the faculty who are called upon to deal with students diverse in age, objectives, ability, and preparation. And yet, as I travel around the country and work with new community college faculty, it becomes obvious that most of our new teachers come with little or no preparation to cope with the particular teaching problems to be found in the junior colleges. Most of our teachers come from either high schools, four-year colleges or directly from graduate schools.

In sum, it is my opinion that these three wants can be accommodated by in-service training programs.

Given the requirement for in-service faculty training programs, what features would constitute an ideal program? I believe it should include (1) faculty research, (2) conferences, (3) consultation, (4) meetings with advisory boards, (5) workshops, (6) training for student advisement, and (7) enrollment in formal courses.

Lawrence L. Jarvie, writing in the National Society for the Study of Education's 1956 Yearbook, *The Public Junior College*, decribed an integrated in-service training program at Stephens College, a private two-year institition in Columbia, Missouri. I mention the program in this context because it contains most of the desirable component elements that I have just outlined.

The faculty of Stephens College participated in research designed to improve the quality of instruction—research which included such studies as the evaluation of experimental classes, the examination of student involvement in extracurricular activities, and the assessment of field trips. Periodically, the faculty assembled to discuss issues salient to Stephens College. At the beginning of the fall term of each year the faculty held conferences wherein members could deal with major problems confronting the institution such as curriculum matters or methods of instruction. These conferences might apply to the entire faculty, a division, a department, or a committee. During summer workshops, teachers of a given course met for about three weeks to arrange the details of their course work for the following academic year.

Another phase of the in-service program at Stephens College specified consultation with educational experts who were invited to give advice on specialized problems relating to the teaching of foreign language courses, art, business education, career planning, reading improvement, and the evaluation of teaching, for example. Allied with the consultative services was the work of advisory boards consisting of nationally known authorities who met on the Stephens College campus in order to study certain curriculums and to propose improvements in them.

To enhance the Stephens College faculty's interaction with students, each faculty member received training for student advisement so that teachers could serve as faculty advisers. The directors of the college firmly believed that a strong relationship existed between advising and good teaching. In one aspect of the training faculty members discussed case studies of students who were experiencing academic or personal difficulties; from this activity the faculty might gain insights that would not be manifest in the usual classroom situation.

A final element of the Stephens College in-service training program was work with librarians. The librarians would enlighten the faculty as to the kinds of instructional resources available or take a key role in the articulation of classroom and library enterprises.

The main idea that I wish to underscore with respect to the Stephens College program is that it was an integrated, collegewide in-service program containing manifold subelements. In addition, it was a program designed and run by the college itself rather than a program imposed from the outside.

Turning away from the Stephens College model I would like to add some of my own observations concerning these elements of an in-service program as well as noting some current examples of them. I begin with faculty colloquia. Workshops and conferences are a familiar device for faculty in-service education. At the institutional level, members of a given faculty may convene in order to solve common instructional problems, or teachers from a diversity of junior colleges may gather during the summer to participate in workshops. As an example of the latter I note workshops operated last summer by the University of Florida for computer technology teachers and by Northern Illinois University for biology teachers. Another version of the workshop may involve consultation with experts or advisory boards, as in the instance of the University of Washington at Seattle which, via its Bureau of Research and Service and its Office of College Relations, provides consultative services to local junior colleges for the improvement of instruction. At Teachers College, Columbia University, we are active in a wide range of pursuits germane to the junior college faculty. We operate preservice academic degree programs in subject matter fields, and we are also instrumental in the continuing formal education of junior college faculty. Convinced that the very specialized, research-oriented Ph.D. degree might not be the

best preparation for undergraduate college teachers. Teachers College, Columbia University, introduced a new doctoral program for the preparation of college teachers of an academic subject. In addition, we are at work devising a program in conjunction with Columbia's Electronic Research Laboratories for the preparation of teachers of technology subjects in the community colleges. In addition, we provide consultant services to institutions wanting to improve or expand almost any facet of their educational offerings, including the quality of teacher performance. Let me illustrate with a few specific examples.

Last summer, I ran a two-week program for a newly established community college in New Jersey. The president of Ocean County College got a Ford Foundation grant to bring his faculty in two weeks before they were due and invited me to run a two-week workshop. The faculty were paid for the two weeks. The majority of the faculty had no previous contact with community colleges either through education or experience. In addition to whatever else they received from the two weeks together, the net result was a greater understanding of the nature of the institution, a sense of "faculty" that resulted from being with each other for two weeks, and an opportunity to get to know each other and their common problems in dealing with a heterogeneous group of students. The two-week program led to a continuing relationship between the institution and me and we are now working together to devise a structure which will allow for faculty participation in governance.

Another type of program is one developed with Harford Junior College in Maryland. Every year a workshop is held for new faculty prior to the opening of school in September. I spent two days with the new faculty in a seminar approach to the community college —problems and issues. The dean of the college with the help of other key people on campus then continued the discussion for the rest of the year in a series of eight or ten sessions with his new faculty members. The institution reports great success with the program.

In still another workshop approach, a faculty may gather new ideas through visitations. Recently California's Monterey Peninsula College faculty, enabled by a Ford Foundation grant, traveled 73,000 miles about the nation in search of information for improving the quality of their program and facilities.

Moving from a consideration of workshops and conferences, let me point out that sabbatical leaves could furnish junior college teachers with a hiatus from instructional loads so that they might be able to carry out independent studies or to refresh their subject matter knowledge. I have thought for a long time that a policy which would allow teachers in the area of technology to be exchanged with industrial personnel would be a most meaningful way to improve the teaching of teachers of technical and semiprofessional subjects. Teachers in the junior colleges could spend a quarter or semester in industry, and industry could release one of their people who likes to teach but could never afford to do so.

Another element of a faculty in-service program that I have proposed is the preparation of junior college faculty members to serve as student advisers. Perhaps one of the most valuable kinds of advice the faculty can provide is career or occupational information. The faculty can also be alert to students needing personal help and can make referrals to specialists. I have seen college after college use their faculty as advisers without making sure that the faculty have some kind of preparation for this role. After all, most of the university programs do not prepare college teachers as counselors. The faculty can be helped to be prepared for this responsibility, however, via liaison contacts with student personnel professionals.

A final means of enhancing the in-service growth of the junior college faculty is an obvious one—faculty enrollment in formal university courses. The salary schedules of typical junior colleges permit salary increases and promotions to personnel who accumulate course credits or who earn advanced degrees. This practice is a desirable way of stimulating the faculty to improve intellectually, as long as they do not pursue courses merely for the sake of accumulating graduate credits. The university in turn, has a responsibility of becoming more imaginative in the experiences they provide for the faculty of community colleges.

Let us change our attention for a moment from this focus to a review of obstacles that I believe hinder the continuing in-service intellectual growth of the junior college faculty.

The first obstacle I discern is the failure of junior college teachers and administrators to recognize the potential worth of faculty in-service training programs. This of course is not confined to us alone. It is also true of our four-year brethren. We at the helm of America's junior colleges must inspire enthusiastic administrative leadership in favor of such programs. A second stumbling block is the paucity of funds and of fellowships that would enable junior college teachers to attend workshops and conferences Participation in summer workshops is too often beyond the financial means of a faculty member who would have to take off from summer employment and pay for the expense of his travel and maintenance while attending a workshop session. Related to the issue of finance is the lack of government support for each of the various subelements of in-service education. These programs cannot really be meaningful until they are available to every junior college. Such widespread availability will require substantial government funding.

A third factor hampering the in-service development of the junior college faculty stems from competing nonacademic demands. At some institutions the faculty are obliged to do routine clerical tasks because secretarial services are not at their disposal. I contend that inefficient use of faculty time detracts from the teacher's opportunity to keep abreast of his discipline, for he may not have sufficient time to carry out vital independent reading and study.

Fourth, and finally, I believe that workshops are frequently too evanescent to have lasting value for the participating faculty member. Workshops and conferences should be lengthened or should meet periodically during the year so that partakers will have a reasonable chance to come to grips with the problems that they undertake to solve.

Having specified the previously mentioned obstacles to the in-service intellectual growth of the junior college teacher, I conclude my presentation with several recommendations that I think, if effected, would form the foundation for the in-service education of the junior college faculty across the nation.

1. *Core elements:* The basic elements of an in-service training program for the junior college faculty should be (a) independent study and research, (b) conferences, (c) consultation, (d) advisory boards, (e) workshops, (f) training for student counseling, and (g) enrollment in university courses.

2. *Evaluation:* I am aware that the teaching profession in its present developmental state lacks precise knowledge of the variables influencing optimal student learning. There is a pressing requirement for research in the operant variables found in classroom learning. Beyond this need, there should be alignment of in-service training programs with these salient variables, when they are isolated, in such a way that classroom instruction can be most efficient. Futhermore, faculty in-service training programs should have built into them a mechanism for evaluation of the amount of student and teacher growth. Without evaluation we are ignorant as to the effeciveness of our in-service programs.

3. *Financial resources:* Funds are required to provide

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: FACULTY ORIENTATION AND IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS

By Joe B. Rushing, President
Tarrant County Junior College
Fort Worth, Texas

Everyone is expert in the administration of higher education. Most people, particularly faculty members, can advise the administrator how to do his job better.

There is great diversity of opinion on how colleges should be run. Long and sometimes bitter discussions evolve over "democracy vs. autocracy in administration of higher education." In all this dialogue, however, one fact is unchanged; decision making is still the responsibility of the administrator. The strength of an institution relates directly to the extent to which its administrators can act decisively and provide creative leadership.

Let us keep that one word in mind during this discussion—*leadership*. The development of the administrative staff to exercise leadership is the most important single task of a junior college president.

The subject given me for this session is, "In-Service Training Programs for the Junior College Administrator." In-service training is all too often an indefinite something that takes place between 3:00 and 4:00 p.m. on alternate Thursdays for junior members of the organization. Therefore, I have chosen to approach this in the broader context of "leadership development" of the administrative staff. All functions of administration and all responsibilities of the administrator should be a part of the staff development program of the institution. This applies equally to the new member added to the administrative staff of a long-established college or a completely new crew for a beginning college.

We could make this discussion short by simply saying, "Select the right people, and your problems will be solved." Many would believe it. It is not true. Regardless of how good the people may be who are chosen for administrative positions in your college, you must develop them into a smooth working team. Even some of those who appear less promising will develop into effective administrators if given the right training. We will take no further time in the selection of the right people, or whether they are needed in the organization or not. We assume both to be affirmative. Let us look now to developing the top administrative staff.

The Role of the Chief Executive: The president can do little in developing his staff to a high level of competence if he does not understand his own role in the total administrative picture. This will vary among institutions because of differing sizes, complexities and organizational structures. Whatever the role of the president, however, it should be clearly defined and understood by him and by his top administrators.

The chief executive officer of a junior college has no business being involved in all the details of the institution. In the first place, this is not appropriate work for his position, but more important, performance of these duties by his staff members is essential in the development of their administrative talent.

Although he does not become personally involved in the details, the president must keep well informed. The task of keeping him well informed is good experience for the staff member if it is made a training experience. Have him report regularly to you on general matters relating to his work. Give him responsibility for reports on special problems. Probing and pertinent questioning during such reports are always useful, not only to give you, the supervisor, a better understanding, but it helps the young administrator to organize his thinking. This will aid him in analyzing his own problems and solutions and he will probably come up with better answers.

The Administrative Staff Meeting: Perhaps no other activity offers more opportunity for executive staff development than the staff meeting. The frequency of the meeting may be of secondary importance. It will vary with the institution. In my own case, each Wednesday morning is devoted to a regular meeting of the administrative staff.

Organization and planning are essential if the staff meeting is to be an effective in-service training program. To assemble around a conference table for unorganized talk will do little for the institution and nothing for the administrator. An agenda should be prepared and in all participants' hands before the time of the meeting. The president himself may prepare the agenda, but in larger institutions, this may be the responsibility of the assistant to the president or some other officer. Administrators should be given the opportunity to submit items for the agenda which require staff consideration.

Minutes should be kept of the administrative staff meeting for a number of reasons. First of all, there should be a record of problems, discussions, and decisions. More important, minutes comprise a written directive for administrators who are assigned specific responsibilities during the staff meeting. Furthermore, follow-up by the president is made easier when an accurate record is maintained.

Assign specific responsibilities for different parts of the staff meeting. Let the staff member define problems, present data, and propose solutions within his own areas of responsibilities. Give every staff member, whether he is on the agenda or not, an opportunity to report briefly on his work, or introduce other matters for future staff study. All of this implies that the staff meeting is of manageable size. If it is too large for these kinds of activities, it is time for the chief executive to look critically at his organizational pattern and his span of control.

The Professional Literature: An excellent in-service training activity for any administrative staff is that of keeping pace with professional literature. With so much of it available, it is impossible for one person to read all that is published in his field, not to mention related areas he should be informed about. This makes it all the more important to give special attention to the problem.

In my staff meetings we have recently established a new procedure. Each week, one member of the staff reviews an article, monograph or other writing which is pertinent to our work. When something comes across my desk, if it looks to be worthwhile for staff consideration, I assign it to the administrator who is primarily concerned with the specific area it covers. It takes only a few minutes, but you can be sure that one member of your staff is thoroughly familiar with the publication and all have at least a nodding acquaintance with it.

Maintain a small professional library in the administration building. It may be no more than one shelf, but it can be a handy reference tool. Do not load it with useless materials, but provide those things with which the staff needs to be familiar. Ours has things ranging from *Junior College Journal*, to federal regulations, to the *Texas Almanac*.

Encourage your administrators to write for publications. The purpose is not simply to expose your college on the pages of professional journals. Writing for a critical editor is one of the best mental exercises for the

administrator. An occasional acceptance is good for his morale and a rejection slip can do wonders for an inflated ego.

The Staff and the Board of Trustees: To what extent should you encourage your administrative staff members to appear before the board or even to attend board meetings? In some cases, the junior college board meeting is a closed affair, in practice if not in theory, and attended only by the members of the board and the president. Administrative staff members are discouraged from attending. Yet the board meetings can be a valuable tool in developing the administrative staff even if they attend only as observers.

The president must make sure that his staff, and board members understand their relationships. The staff must know that he, the chief executive, is the one directly responsible to the board and that they are responsible to him. Furthermore, the board must be educated on its role, particularly as it relates to contact with the administrative staff. These things may present real problems in some junior college districts, but a skillful president can insure that both can benefit from contacts at regular board meetings. It is fairly common practice for the chief finance officer to make monthly financial reports to the board, either in person or by sending his written report through the president. In my own college, the chief finance officer personally presents financial matters to the board in the regular board meeting when such items are on the agenda.

Most boards have too little time to consider the educational programs for which they are responsible. Budgets, taxes, and a plethora of business matters dominate their attention. This is unfortunate. In a new institution such as Tarrant County Junior College where we as yet have no students, we are making many decisions relating to admissions, student services and instruction which the board should know about. Our admissions officer presents admission policies to the board and answers questions raised by members. The dean of student services explains our counseling and guidance, student aid, and other services which we will be offering the students. The executive dean makes regular reports on the development of the curriculum as it progresses from week to week. The vice-president for program development whose primary responsibility is the development of technical-vocational programs is given time at board meetings to bring the members current information on these curriculums.

When the president is skillful in his role of helping staff members and board members to understand theirs, then direct contact between administrators and the board is good for the college and valuable in-service experience for the administrator.

Written Communications and Staff Development: All written communications between the president and his staff members are not necessarily assets to in-service training. Memos cannot substitute for face-to-face contact. It may be easier to criticize a man's work in a memo than it is to call him in and talk with him about it, but it may be the least effective way to do it.

The president can do nothing more valuable for the young administrator than help him become skilled in written communications. Some of the poorest writing done today is by educated men and women on college campuses. A study of typical college communications ranging from the catalog to the interoffice memo will reveal an appalling collection of smothered verbs, redundancies, blunderbuss words, stilted phrases, vague meanings and other verbal garbage. Teach the administrator that written communication is to express, and you have given him one of his finest leadership qualities.

The administrative policy letter is a valuable staff development device, especially for the new administrator. Policies may be developed in a number of ways, but they should be clearly written and distributed to all concerned. In a new institution which starts with very few policies, this is especially important. These policy letters, as they are prepared, can be assembled as administrative guidelines for the operation of the college. Above all, involve your administrative staff in formulating these written policies.

Most colleges have a form of house organ, a publication distributed regularly for the benefit of faculty and staff. Here again is a good instrument for staff development. It can serve as a reminder of deadlines, and jobs unfinished. It helps to develop understanding between offices and departments, and with judicious use gives an opportunity for public recognition of excellence. Use your house organ as a staff development instrument and teach your staff to use it as an administrative tool.

Some Things To Do in Administrative Staff Development: Be sure that the administrator understands the scope and responsibility of his work. Give him a job description and periodically go over it with him to see what changes need to be made as he and the college both grow.

Keep the administrator busy. A problem on any college campus is a $15,000 a year man with too little to do. Not only is this a problem for other staff members, but it is a demoralizing thing for the administrator himself. Give him work appropriate for his position. As bad as not having anything to do is having nothing of significance to do. If an administrator occupies most of his time with duties which could be done more effectively by a clerk-typist, then one of two things is certain—he is not needed, or the president does not know how to use him.

Give the administrator freedom to operate within the limits of his capabilities. If the right people have been selected, they can be given a great deal of freedom. Don't be too alarmed about a minor mistake which an administrator may make. This may be one of the best educational experiences he will have and is not likely to result in total disaster for the college.

Give the administrator adequate support. If his job is justified, it warrants clerical help. Make sure he gets the necessary supporting efforts from other staff members who have supporting roles. It is one thing to give a man freedom—it is another to isolate him from the team.

Give the staff member the whole picture. Allow, even encourage him to visit other colleges. On special problems, let him use consultants. Do not always select the consultant for him but let him make the choice.

Keep the lines of communication open. The president must always be close to his staff. He must communicate with them and they with him. Equally important are the lines of communication between members of the administrative staff. In any organization, frictions will develop. This is particularly so if you have chosen strong people to fill your administrative posts. Never let personality problems or misunderstandings cause a long break in communications between two administrative offices. Be on the alert for such problems and take the steps necessary to correct them quickly. When communications between two administrators degenerate to only terse memos, you have waited too long.

Capitalize on normal desire for personal achievement. This desire for achievement on the part of the administrator may be one of the greatest assets to the president. Channel it in the right direction. To say that the administrator is interested "only in the good of the college" may appeal to some, but it is a platitude that will not hold up well under analysis. I would not have a man working for me who did not have a strong personal desire to get ahead. If your administrators want to be presidents, help them. Give them the training and experience in their present role which will allow them to move into top administrative positions. Make sure, though, that your own personal and professional development insures that one of them will not move into your spot!

Make every man feel important. This is more than simply reminding him from time to time that he is doing a good job. Give him recognition, but most of all rely

on him—let him know that you feel he is important to you in the work that he is doing. This can be done by giving him increasing responsibilities as he is able to handle them efficiently.

Give your staff your complete loyalty. Too many presidents are worried about loyalty, but only in one direction. They demand loyalty of all those below them in the organization, but fail to see their own responsibility. Being loyal is not necessarily approving everything done by one of your staff. When one of your administrators makes a mistake, correct him in private, but be willing to publicly assume responsibility. When you can't give a man your loyalty—get rid of him. It is as simple as that.

The job of the chief executive is a complex one. During any given day his activities will include a wide range of contacts and experiences, but none of these is more important than the training of an administrative staff. If he fails in this, he is really not the chief executive. His success as administrator depends on his ability to do this. William M. Allen, president of the Boeing Company, summed it up pretty well when he said, "You hear a lot about new, sophisticated management techniques, but they're all directed toward the same goal. You must give managers the authority to run their operations, get the right person in the right post, and then stimulate him."

Stimulation is the key to staff development, and staff development is essential in creative leadership.

SESSION 7

The Effective Faculty Member: Some Administrators' Views

THE EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEMBER: SOME ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS

By Thomas E. O'Connell, President
Berkshire Community College
Pittsfield, Massachusetts

The community college faculty member functions most effectively in a climate of freedom. The freer we can let our faculty be in all respects, the better. I want to refer here particularly to their freedom from the standpoint of the community college's willingness to embrace conflicting points of view and to encourage controversy.

Since so many of our faculty come from secondary schools, they must understand the clear distinction between a college and a secondary school where academic freedom is concerned. The influence of secondary schools on community colleges has been strong and in respect to the climate of academic freedom a community college should have, the influence has been negative. Some of the best teaching that goes on in this country is done in public high schools and some of the best community college teachers are people who have moved into community college faculties from public high schools. But one does not expect from a high school the same kind of yeasty, controversial, combustible effect on the community that one has the right to expect from a college. In the measure that the community college is permitted to become more like a properly conservative high school than like a university or a four-year liberal arts college in its catalytic effect on the cultural and intellectual life of the community it serves—in that measure the college has failed to become all it ought to be. Unless that openness of inquiry is provided for *faculty*, students will be deprived of the kind of intellectual atmosphere which they are ready for at age eighteen; which, indeed, they require at eighteen in order to stretch their minds as far as they should be stretched.

Charles W. Ingler once described this atmosphere in an article on Ohio community colleges:

> What is the main difference between public school education and higher education? It is not that one group of teachers is better or worse than the other. It is not that one level of work is more important or more difficult than another. It is not, in all cases, even that one area of study is more advanced than another.
>
> The basic difference is this: that when the student of seventeen to nineteen years of age goes beyond the twelfth grade, he moves into an area of study in which unprovable ideologies and dilemmas begin to appear. It is at this stage that he comes to grips with the questions for which the human race does not yet have conclusive answers, and he now must participate in the pondering of these questions. In his earlier years he was studying descriptions of known facts, for the most part, and during his adolescence we did not want him to lose faith by worrying over imponderable problems. At the college age, however, he is assumed to be ready for the difficult and sometimes discouraging study of both popular and unpopular ideas, as well as facts.[1]

Let me use an example from Berkshire Community College's own experience in order to be specific. Berkshire Community College recently came of age as a college in the eyes of our community—a relatively isolated rural county of 140,000 in western Massachusetts with one city of 56,000 in which the college is located. This coming of age for our seven-year-old college took place in a storm of controversy which would probably not have occurred in a community where a college had long been established. There is in our community a man who defected to Red China after the Korean War—one of the "infamous twenty-one" American soldiers in Korean prisoner of war camps who made the choice at the end of the Korean conflict to go to Communist China rather than return to the United States. Last year, this man was invited to appear before the students of our college to talk about his life in Red China and to participate in a college radio program on the subject of the war in Vietnam. The defector, an articulate, thoughtful man who returned to this country a dozen years ago and now holds a responsible job in our community, was known to feel that we are wrong in being at war in Vietnam, just as in his opinion we were wrong on certain of our policies in Korea.

Local union groups, supported by several community organizations including veterans' groups, were outraged by the invitation to the defector and demanded that it be withdrawn. Their demand was declined by the college and an offer of equal time to present their views on the radio and before the college students was made instead. Incensed that a defector should have a forum, these groups held a stormy demonstration while the radio program was being aired. One of the placards they carried read, "Patriotic American Teachers for our *Children*" (emphasis mine).

It was interesting that so many citizens and citizens'

[1] Ingler, Charles W. "Governing Principles for State Policy Toward Community Colleges." *Educational Research Bulletin* 40: 29-31; February 8, 1961.

groups in our community would miss the point that a college—if it really is to be a college—must permit all sides of controversial issues to be heard and obviously does not itself necessarily support the views of the speakers to whom it gives a forum. These groups also missed the point that college students are *not* children who must be protected from controversy.

The experience of having B.C.C. embroiled in controversy was unquestionably a useful educational one for our students and our community (though I confess I personally had a few sleepless nights as the tension mounted—and it *was* tense). Countless students and citizens of our community (including one minister) have commented that the experience made them really focus down for the first time on the issues at hand, including the primordial issue of free speech. At the height of the controversy I quoted Justice Holmes' remark that freedom of speech is "freedom for the thought that we hate." It has been quoted back to me a number of times.

What did we learn from the experience? Well, one thing we learned is that nothing stimulates students as much as controversy. This year the college's visiting lectures include the Korean defector again, a representative of the John Birch Society, and John Rock, the Catholic gynecologist who is author of the book on birth control entitled *The Time Has Come.* (Our community is about 70 per cent Roman Catholic so Dr. Rock's book and his thesis that "the pill" is morally right is an extremely controversial one there.) Eyebrows have been raised at each of the speakers, but no placards. Our community and our students are beginning to get the idea that controversial issues are part of the experience of going to college.

It is essential that a community college, just like any institution of higher education, establish its identity as a place where students are exposed to conflicting views and permitted and encouraged to seek the truth for themselves. As long as the community college is timid on matters of this sort, its students will be shortchanged. In the long run, so will the community be shortchanged, especially if there are no other colleges or universities in the area to provide this kind of forum for free exchange of ideas on all subjects.

We in community college work boast of the uniqueness of our kinds of colleges and we are right to do so. Our purposes are different from those of the university. Our faculty are in many respects different from their university colleagues and their graduate school training should be different, as Roger Garrison has outlined in his recent report, "Junior College Faculty: Issues and Problems." But in terms of intellectual freedom I insist that the community college must be considered in just the same category as any other institution of higher education. The community college must have *both* the requisite uniqueness in educational programs *and* the essential equality of status with other institutions of higher education in respect to academic freedom. Nobody will fight to establish this uniqueness and this equality if the community college president does not. Unless he makes abundantly clear that he will fight if necessary for his faculty's right to say what they please and to invite whom they please to speak at the college, the faculty will tend to be timid, and timidity is inimical to higher education as I understand higher education. The *last* thing our community college students need is timid faculty.

Indeed, we who hire community college teachers have an obligation to bring to our faculties strong men and women who have differing opinions. The bigger the college gets the more chance there is to have people of divergent views in each department. Thus the student is exposed to adults who teach him to think for himself by not agreeing among themselves. Berkshire Community College's smallness has provided thus far an intimate atmosphere that has clearly helped many young students find themselves. But I am glad we are getting large enough now to bring in a sufficient number of forceful, able people who simply by the percentages of numbers hold divergent views from one another on a variety of issues—including, of course, matters directly related to their own disciplines.

The fact that most community college students live at home means that they need the catalytic influence of a strong-minded and abrasive faculty even more than do the students who leave home to attend residential colleges. Why is this so? For three reasons. In the first place, one of the main reasons they have *not* gone away to college is that they are less daring than their peers. There are of course many exceptions to this statement but a number of studies have demonstrated that one of the two most pronounced differences between community college students and residential college students is that community college students are less willing to take risks. (The other difference is that they are less bright. This is also to be expected and also subject to many exceptions.)

Secondly, community college students need the abrasive influence of strong faculty people because they all return each evening to their homes where they are subject to the same family influences they have known all their lives. These influences are often bland or worse. Thus the students have only part of the day to be exposed to new ways of thinking, to get "fussed up" by challenges to their previous ways of approaching life.

Thirdly, since students in a typical community college are all from the same geographic area and tend to be from the same socio-economic group, their parochial attitudes need to be shaken up by faculty whose backgrounds are very different.

To counteract these forces which tend to make our students narrow, our faculties must feel the freedom to speak out and make their views known to students. Indeed, this freedom should be an "inarticulate major premise" of the faculty's day-to-day functioning. Author James MacGregor Burns, a member of our college's advisory board, said to me regarding B.C.C.'s free speech fight last year, "If you have to stop and think if you'll get in trouble before you speak out or invite someone else to speak out, then you're already in trouble."

This feeling of freedom is a very nebulous thing. It pervades an institution or it does not. It is a precious thing for a faculty to have and nobody generates it or stifles it in anything like the same measure as the president. Establishing this atmosphere of freedom may be the most important thing a president of a new college can do for his new faculty after seeing to it that they get paid. Nurturing this freedom and defending it are perhaps the most important continuing responsibilities a community college president has after recruiting faculty who can use the freedom provocatively and responsibly.

I am stressing this atmosphere of intellectual freedom because I think it is a crucial matter in which community college administrators have not been as perceptive and bold as we ought to be. And it is a matter which many community college boards of trustees have not thought about or would not agree on if they did think about it. Many community college boards of trustees are locally elected officials. In many places they are the same boards which oversee the operations of the local primary and secondary schools. It is difficult for such a board to see the importance of having their college be a wide-open, free-wheeling institution where some heat is generated as well as lots of light. The result is that too many community college campuses are places where there hasn't been any healthy controversy for years, if ever. While some of our university friends are being distracted by *too much* controversy, most of us are lolling in a backwater with too little. In the long run I suggest too much is much better than too little.

Recently the American Civil Liberties Union urged that new colleges right from the outset address themselves to the critically important matter of academic

freedom. The Civil Liberties Union cited the leisurely pace with which older, established colleges were able to permit "an evolution of the academic spirit" to develop, and contrasted this evolution with the problems attendant to starting new colleges quickly today under the pressures of burgeoning enrollment. The C.L.U. stated: "Now maturity must be achieved overnight if the new college is to leave an imprint of intellectual integrity on the thousands of students who will crowd its campuses in the next few years."

New two-year colleges are even less apt to create from the start a climate of openness and freedom than new four-year institutions. We have, after all, lots to do in starting community colleges and usually we have less time to plan than do new four-year institutions. Many of us are working so hard just to handle the nuts and bolts tasks in our burgeoning colleges that it never occurs to us to examine the climate of academic freedom on our campuses. And if it does occur to us, our reaction is liable to be: "I have enough problems right now, thank you, without asking for new problems which intellectual controversy brings." Or: "My community relations are important to me and to my college. Why should I encourage my faculty to make people mad at us?"

My response is simply this: without a climate of openness and freedom the faculty cannot be expected to reach the intellectual "critical mass" which will really stimulate students and teach them to think for themselves.

THE EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEMBER: SOME ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS

By Robert Greenman, Academic Dean
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Middletown, New York

Because the members of the faculty of a community or junior college operate in a social setting, perhaps it is necessary, before trying to specify the most desirable traits for the role, to say something sociological about that setting.

We have recently begun to look with favor on the word "access" as best characterizing our type of educational institution. By access, we mean an admissions policy which looks for reasons to grant rather than deny college entrance. (Retention policy is an altogether different matter.) And the set of curriculums is probably designed to maximize the likelihood that every student we admit can enter upon a course of study which commands at least his nominal interest. Once he is admitted, and started upon an academic path, we usually provide the student with considerable aid in the various forms of student personnel services: loans and grants of money, psychological testing and personal counseling, a faculty adviser to render first-echelon maintenance and repair, etc. A fourth facet of our enterprise is conspicuously present, too, if we can believe each other. We allegedly build into our social setting a faculty which gladly and effectively teaches.

There are many other elements in the environment, but these four should suffice to make the point. We may not own a particle accelerator, and the library may still be below A.L.A. quantitative standards, but our students, we say and hope, are in an environment which is not merely unique but actually good. Help is there for all who care to reach for it. Standards are "high" (and, happily, no one has to define that term!), but everywhere are friendly, well-adjusted adults who are competent to deal with most of the problems that freshmen and sophomores encounter.

What more can be said in description of our campus milieu—the administrators—men and women who will fight for adequate public or private funds to pay for buildings, equipment and staff? Regional accreditation agencies understand us, so we can always call upon them for advice and help. The board of trustees rarely fails to discharge its responsibilities and even less frequently tries to exercise authority outside its own sphere of operations. Throw in a community which has great affection for the college within its boundaries—even, in many instances, a kind of awe. Here, then, in a quick sketch, is our social setting.

Now let us turn our attention to that familiar bit of spring madness, the decision to appoint the faculty. Most of us, given pencil and paper and fifteen mniutes, would produce nearly identical lists of desirable characteristics. We know pretty well what we want: a brilliant but modest person who can explain the molecular structure of anything to anybody, who understands and endorses our ideological predispositions concerning education, who turns in his grades on time, types his own exams, keeps his office hours faithfully, makes any moribund committee come alive, and speaks well before the local PTA. Unfortunately, this season will be like all the previous ones—only worse. We will have to choose among several candidates, each of whom possesses what the connoscenti call "very unique" qualifications.

For purposes of mutual agonizing, I have invented three candidates for the vacancy in your English department, which must add a person to the present fourteen to take care of rising enrollment. The assignment will be to teach four sections, at least three of which will be freshman English. The department is heterogeneous in field of specialization, has members in all academic ranks who vary widely in age and length of time at your college, and is split into four or five ragged and ever-changing schools of thought on the question of what to teach in freshman English. The students, too, are a heterogeneous lot, ranging from high school valedictorians to functional illiterates. Freshman English is required in all curriculums, a fact which does little to enhance its popularity. The time is April 15, 1967; the place, your office. The chain smoker facing you is the chairman of the English department. He pushes the transcripts and letters of reference aside, and begins to sum up the recruitment effort. Three of the candidates are at least acceptable and would accept appointment. Which one do you want?

Candidate X is twenty-six, a married man, has taught for two years in junior high and for two years in senior high. He holds a bachelor's degree in education from State U., and a master's in English from a good graduate school, where he was a C-to-B performer, as he had been during his undergraduate days. He plans to continue his studies. References speak of him as a serious, conscientious chap, businesslike but not stuffy. He has tenure at his present post, but thinks he would be happier at a college because (he writes in his letter of inquiry about vacancies) the students in college are mature and more eager to learn than his present charges.

Candidate Y is forty-two, also married, holds an M.A. and is an all-but-dissertation doctoral candidate at a fine university. A war veteran, he has also worked for ten years in the publishing and advertising industries, and is completing his sixth year at a small, privately supported college which is lightly endowed and heavily mortgaged. His letter of application and the references give the impression of an urbane man who likes to teach writing and U.S. literature, knows the anthology you are using in freshman English and has strong views about sorting the wheat from the chaff at the end of the semester. He belongs to the A.A.U.P., has attended M.L.A. conventions, faces an unexciting future where he is now located because his time as a Ph.D. candidate has just about run out.

Candidate Z is thirty-two, a married woman whose husband is a prosperous local lawyer. Their two children are now in elementary school. She earned a B.A. *magna cum laude* in 1957 from one of the "Seven Sisters," and has just completed her M.A. in a program which included some course work in "Teaching English in Junior College." She has no full-time teaching experience at any level, but has substituted in high school for several weeks at a time, and was in charge of one quiz section of modern drama during her last semester as a graduate student. References praise her as a scholar and as a person, but hint that she may be a bit starry-eyed about the nature of a full-time teaching position at a community college.

Let us assume that you and the department chairman agree to interview all three candidates. The day of the interviews arrives, and you face it calmly, because you feel that X, Y and Z are all good people who would cause no consternation in the faculty lounge. Nor, you are confident, would any of them upset the long-standing good will between students and faculty. Your only concern is to make the fine distinction which will identify the best

candidate for this permanent position. Calculating rapidly, you estimate that this decision may lead to an investment of $250,000 in salary until retirement, and to a confrontation with 3,000 students during the same period.

Let the interview begin. But what are you looking for? How can you detect that highly effective person you seek? What—if anything—will a ninety-minute conversation reveal?

It would be pure effrontery to write a recruiting prescription for hundreds of experienced college administrators and say, "Here, take this once a year." I prefer to tell you what came to my mind when I began to put in writing my thoughts on the subjects. Here are about a dozen considerations. I have even tried to arrange them in rank order, leaving it to you to decide whether ascending or descending!

1. How does this candidate look at himself and at life? With the "comic view," I hope. For an explanation of what this phrase means, see Edward Galligan's article in the Summer 1966 *AAUP Bulletin*. In essence, Professor Galligan argues that "life is a deeply illogical, marvelously chancey affair, and man looks foolish when he forgets that . . ." I do not hold that we should appoint only existentialists, but simply that the candidate who thinks nothing—or everything—of himself is a poor risk.

2. How, in the candidate's opinion and conviction, do people learn? Borrowing liberally from *Approach to Teaching*, Number 14 in the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare series, "New Dimensions in Higher Education," I urge you to ascertain the extent to which the candidate believes that "teaching . . . is what is left after a teacher stops transmitting information."

3. The next half-dozen criteria are really only corollaries of the second one, but they may be useful in clarifying that somewhat enigmatic statement. Ask the candidate how he would prepare for class. Is it all intake, gathering up of precious declaratory sentences culled from a score of impeccable sources? Or does he prepare by planning the precise wording of the questions he will ask?

4. What impression do you get of the candidate's ability to listen, to follow and appraise an argument? Did he or she detect the planted *non sequitur* in one of your discourses?

5. What reason do you have to believe that the candidate has enough classroom presence to know when to shut up, when to hold the floor, when to switch from telling to asking?

6. During the interview, what impression do you get of the candidate as "lecturer"? A person who will transmit what he knows, or one who will try to present his reflections on what he knows?

7. What would the candidate ask on a final examination? "Discuss Walt Whitman?" "Analyze the social, political, economic, psychological and anthropological themes implicit in *Catcher in the Rye?*" "Match the following characters with the plays in which they appear?"

8. And, last in this series of corollaries, do you get the feeling that the candidate, if appointed, would holler "academic freedom" if you asked him what he has been doing in his classes this week?

9. Now come a series of considerations which are only roughly related to each other, although most of them pertain to personal traits. For example, stealing some nomenclature from William Arrowsmith's speech at the October 1966 meeting in New Orleans of the American Council on Education, I offer this question: in a forced-choice situation, how would you classify the candidate—as conductor or as galvanizer? The metaphor, I believe, is apt.

10. What seems to be the candidate's tolerance of ambiguity, and his reaction to disagreement? Does he cave in, become angry or upset? Or does he seem able to survive the discovery that educational opinions often clash? If your college is typical, I venture the guess that you need faculty members who would feel comfortable on Cyprus.

11. Given the highly transient nature of the student population of junior and community colleges—the drop-outs, the boot-outs, and the annual loss of one-third or more by graduation—would this candidate be able to develop a sense of belonging and some of that dreadfully old-fashioned trait, devotion to the college? Institutional loyalty in the best sense of that term is crucial; somebody has to care about the college's property, its library holdings, its reputation over the years.

12. What sort of final grades would you expect this candidate to turn in? We all moan about academic bookkeeping, and often doubt the wisdom of all systems of grading student performance, but grades are still the symbol of academic achievement and college "output." What clues do you have as to the candidate's consciousness of the complications in computing final grades, and of his willingness to introduce the famous "fudge factor" into all formulas?

13. Finally, are you interviewing a *moral* person? I make no reference here to behavior at the cocktail parties that precede the annual faculty dinner, but to the hard business of sensitivity to injustice to a single student or faculty member. I hold that we can ill afford to have on our faculty persons who send CARE packages only to themselves.

One man's enumeration of the characteristics of the effective faculty member can be little more than the sum of his reactions to the candidates he's met, and these reactions surely reflect attitudes formed and values held. To rip the cover off these attitudes and values, I will close my remarks with a spate of quotations. Here, occasionally accompanied by my comment, are some of the ideas which have influenced me.

Talcott Parsons has written (see *Current Issues in Higher Education*, 1966) that ". . . administrators have

come . . . to define their functions as those of *facilitating* the central functions of the faculties, rather than treating them as employees whose activities are to be directed by their organizational superiors." Yes, and we will have done our recruitment jobs well when we appoint only self-propelled people. But administrators must *not* facilitate the centrifugal tendency already present among college faculties.

Stuart Chase addressed these remarks to subject-matter specialists: "Crawl out of that talent-trap which you refer to as your field, and look around. You may learn something about the only era in which you will ever live, and about the only species you will ever be a member of."

Quintilian, 1,900 years ago: " . . . there is absolutely no foundation for the complaint that but few men have the power to take in the knowledge that is imparted to them, and that the majority are so slow of understanding that education is a waste of time and labor." I hope somebody will establish Quintilian Community College.

Kenneth May of Carleton College:" . . . the real live teacher (as opposed to a lecturer) cannot be fully simulated by a machine, because the teacher is able to respond to unanticipated events."

Nathan Pusey (in *A Decade in Review*): " . . . desperately as the world needs knowledge, if knowledge does not come to fruition in people of moral sensitivity who care and who will stand, the world will have little good of it."

Robert Edgar of Queens College, writing in an ironic vein in the Winter 1964 *AAUP Bulletin:* "The rising faculty member devotes his energies to the big problems in life, . . . the nature of political power, the tragic element in Joyce, the distribution of national income, while the trivial questions, the curriculum, standards of admission, class size, salaries, are left to others."

Robert Preston of Ballarmine College also struck an ironic note in his criticism (*AAUP Bulletin*, Autumn 1966) of professorial attitudes toward freshmen and sophomores: "Our definition of a student is one who has at least the intellectual capacity of the teacher . . . A *good* student is one who has been dead at least fifty years. A *great* student is one who has been dead fifty years, but whose books are still worth reading."

Ronald Gross, editor of *The Teacher and the Taught*, wrote that while a college education is, in part, an investment serving the utilitarian interest of both student and society, our mission is also, in part, to develop the individual *"over and above* what is required by his vocational and civic role." (Italics added). I endorse this view of the proper aims of education, and fear that it is not widely held in our colleges.

This grab bag of observations by others having been opened to show something of my underlying predispositions, I conclude with a second reference to an earlier observation. I not only look for the "comic view" in candidates for faculty appointment, but try to hold onto it myself. I may be wrong in many of my arguments, but we are here to listen to each other. Therefore, lay on, MacDean and MacPresident, and damned be him that first cries, "Hold, enough."

THE EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEMBER: SOME ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS

By Malcolm H. Forbes, Dean
Cazenovia College
Cazenovia, New York

The provincial Easterner that I am, I feel somewhat like a pioneer of earlier days, who has trekked across the country with rather preconceived notions of the promised land. Admittedly it only took five hours flying time instead of four or five months of hard trails and privation, but the result of this journey has been equally as revealing. My eyes have been opened to the new territory of education in California and the consequences of this system for the country as a whole may eventually be far more meaningful than the gold rush or even the movie industry.

The early pioneers carried with them pretty meager fare, just about enough to keep body and soul together. The idea of dried beef and beans for an extended period of time, or any period at all for that matter, certainly leaves something to be desired. And I confess that my offering to you may be equally as indigestible and unsatisfying, because I have not come here with any ready-made solutions to our mutual problems. Perhaps, my small contribution can be to raise a few questions rather than to provide any specific answers.

The impact of large numbers on our educational system has been staggering. The student population is becoming more aware and more demanding of its place in society. The development of intellectual and moral values has failed to keep pace with the tremendous advances in technology. We all know these things, but what can we do about them? And how do these forces relate to the field of education?

One thing we can do is ask questions. We can ask questions of country, our institutions, our colleagues, and ourselves. However, the answer to such questions, if in fact there could be just one answer to each question, is not as important as the continual search and exploration into new areas of knowledge.

In my opinion, this quality of intellectual curiosity best describes the "effective faculty member." A person who is conscious of what he is doing, and how and why he is doing it, is already on his way to becoming more effective. He must be receptive to new ideas and willing to reevaluate old ones. Under various sorts of daily pressure, it is all too easy to be content with the status quo. But the effective faculty member must also be able to see himself in relationship to the entire college and its objectives.

Hence, the objectives of a college are central to the whole function. All the resources at our disposal should be devoted to fulfilling these objectives. Yet how many of us really know what these objectives are at our own institutions, much less our degree of achievement in attaining them? The glorious and high-sounding statements in our catalogs sometimes bear little resemblance to reality. If we are not sure of our purpose, how can we possibly exert our efforts in the right direction? Usually if we succeed even partially, it is more by accident than by design.

Well, after that discouraging note, it may seem surprising that we are able to accomplish anything at all. But fortunately the field of education is full of optimists, otherwise we would still be back in the Dark Ages. Administrators and faculty alike must see the necessity of working in close cooperation to take the first important step together. I see this step as being the careful and exhaustive consideration of what our objectives should be as two-year colleges, now and in the future.

Many people have prophesied that we will have universal higher education by the end of this century, or possibly before. California is probably the best example of the current trend in that direction. The comparison is often made between a high school education a generation ago and a college education today. Whether or not an additional two years of academic study will ever be required, I believe it will in any case become the standard of achievement.

Our objectives must therefore be strengthened to meet this challenge, and who will do this strengthening if not the faculty at our institutions. In order to respond properly to this challenge, we obviously have to know what we are trying to do. Our purpose must surely go beyond keeping youngsters off the streets and yet it must be something more than a repetition of high school. It must encompass all segments of the population and contribute to the public interest. Very simply, I feel our purpose must be to prepare every young person to accept a responsible role in society.

Of course, the fact that our society is changing so rapidly only makes the problem more difficult. A person must be employed to feel that he is a useful member of society, but his specific job may become obsolete or change more than once during his lifetime. According to Nevitt Sanford then, "The implication is that we must offer education that develops general capacities, and particularly the capacity to go on learning; these will serve the individual in a great diversity of work situations."

But as the physical requirements for work in terms of time and effort decrease, greater demands will be placed on other areas of responsibility. Of utmost importance is the area concerned with human values. Any society which does not maintain certain standards or ignores its moral health will inevitably experience a gradual weakening from within. This is not a subject that can be taught, nor should arbitrary values be imposed as a matter of expediency. But for the benefit of the individual, as well as the larger group, we have an obligation to help those interested in establishing their own set of values.

It seems to me that these needs of society, both vocational and social (in its truest sense), are really quite similar and can be fulfilled through general education. I am again talking about what should take place in the two years beyond a high school education. This additional exposure to formal instruction may provide the last opportunity to light that spark which will sustain a person for the rest of his or her life.

I suspect that the term "general education" means different things to different people. My definition does not depend solely on subject matter or intensity of concentration. (The traditional argument between broad superficial knowledge and narrow specialization no longer holds. We have only two years to achieve our purpose, so that whatever we do we have to make it count.) General education should provide every student with an understanding of Western culture and a foundation of common knowledge. But most important is the approach which makes all this information relevant to his personal growth and function in society.

It may be that individual faculty members are convinced of the need for general education, but collectively I am afraid they have failed to distinguish themselves.

This is not particularly surprising when we consider the emphasis placed on vocational education by the federal, state, and local governments. Although recently there have been some indications of progress, the situation today is still much the same as in 1960, when Leland Medsker pointed out that "in the majority of two-year colleges, relatively little had been done to meet the objectives of general education."

I do not mean to place the entire blame on faculty, but obviously without their whole-hearted cooperation nothing of this sort could possibly be accomplished. How then does this change our picture of the "effective faculty member." It is no longer sufficient to be a good teacher—how that is determined could be the subject of an entire conference—but he must also be intimately involved with fundamental matters of curriculum and instruction. I know we all have committees, and in fact these committees have considerable authority in most institutions, but how often are the basic concepts of education discussed—especially in relationship to the stated objectives of the college? Decisions regarding major programs or revision of curriculums may require administrative approval but are seldom, if ever, denied on academic grounds.

There should be no question of the virtual absolute mastery of the teacher in the classroom. He is in complete control of his course material, teaching methods, and marking practices. And he might actually be doing some pretty exciting things on his own, but when it comes to innovations throughout the college, those same faculty members are too often reluctant to participate. There is at least some truth in the thesis that faculty, either collectively or individually, are generally opposed to change. I am not suggesting change merely for the sake of change. And it is certainly difficult to argue with an instructor who says that after a great deal of experimentation he has finally found the perfect way to teach his particular course—so why should he change? But the question I would then raise is whether or not the course he is teaching is being taught most effectively and in keeping with the stated goals of the college.

With this in mind, I suggest that faculty are necessarily the pivotal element in determining and implementing the objectives of general education. Recent advances toward these objectives have been accomplished through their efforts. And this progress should be greeted with enthusiasm and encouragement. But unfortunately, I feel the faculty are likewise responsible for the serious and widespread shortcomings which still exist in this area. These deficiencies should be recognized as soon as possible and corrective measures taken by the institutions concerned.

Having read Mr. Garrison's report of *Junior College Faculty*, I am reassured to know that many of the problems which confront us all have been sought out and exposed to the light of day. With a better understanding of the situation we should be able to deal with it more meaningfully.

Furthermore, I think we have many "effective faculty members" at our colleges throughout the country and hopefully by getting them to work together, they will be able to solve some of these problems, which I certainly cannot. In the final analysis it is their persistence and dedication that will produce results but it is up to us as administrators to see that they are given the chance.

THE EFFECTIVE FACULTY MEMBER: SOME ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS

By Stuart E. Marsee, President
El Camino College
Torrance, California

Is the academic dean a natural enemy of the teaching faculty?

Must he give up citizenship in one world to gain residence in another?

Does he survive because of a natural instinct for patience and low cunning?

Does he achieve his ends by a sinister and little understood "black art"?

No this isn't a prelude to a soap opera. Unfortunately, it is a biased and a too often used characterization of an important supporting member of the college scene—the academic dean, or department chairman.

Centralism on the Wane: Enlightened leadership recognizes that there is danger to the true college community by the concentration of excessive power in one position—the president. The fact of the matter is that most colleges are too big and/or complex to be managed and administered by the personnel of a single office.

The spirit of domination in college administration is dead. Very little can be achieved in academic affairs without the cooperation of the faculty, the administration, the trustees, and, in many instances, the student. The administration of a broad variety of academic programs requires great talent—the individual and the combined efforts of the total staff. Almost every faculty member is involved in administration of some kind.

The need to have creative thinking and to solve problems close to the scene of action becomes more and more apparent. El Camino College is organized on the principle of decentralization—divisions within a college. Deans, who are third-line administrators, give leadership to divisions with twenty to fifty faculty members. Their responsibility is backed with authority. Theirs is a twelve-month assignment with competitive salary and fringe benefits. Most deans teach only one three-unit course a year. The dean is a major force in the development of curriculums, selection and retention of faculty, budget development, in-service education for his faculty, and for the standard of performance within his division. To the degree that the dean is able to humanize education and to help those who teach the student, an institution will excel.

The Nerve Center: The academic dean and/or the department chairman must be a man for all seasons. He must be a jack-of-all-trades and a master of some. More than any other attribute, he must possess the ability to be the "man in the middle" between the teaching and administrative faculties and, yet, to remain his own man.

The kind of person who is qualified to be an outstanding dean would undoubtedly be superior in any position, including president. He will not, however, have designs on this position. While his skills must be many, his great love will be for excellence in teaching. An effective dean is continually probing. He will raise problems and "on occasion" offer answers. He will be "greedy" for his division but will have the capacity to have an all-college point of view.

It has been said that an academic dean is only a professor who answers his mail. Most deans have been subject to the same education and experience as teachers. To be successful, he must be a glutton for work, have a talent for listening to others at their convenience, and be able to keep his desk reasonably cleared. He should know what merits immediate attention, what may be taken care of tomorrow, and he must realize that he will never "catch up."

The dean must be able to make value judgments. There will be times when money will not be available for worthy projects. He will have to determine which programs are to be altered, eliminated, or postponed. He should have the courage to eliminate an older and established program for a new one of greater quality.

Man or Superman? Where did you find your deans? What are the characteristics of the new deans? El Camino College has ten deans of instruction, seven of whom have been selected during my tenure as president. Four of the positions were created by the separation of a division and three created to fill vacancies in existing divisions.

Two of the new deans were promoted from the ranks of tenured (more than three years of service) teachers. Three deans were selected from other institutions. Two originally came to the college from the University of California as Kellogg fellows on the administrative intern program.

The new deans have certain characteristics in common. As California requires certification, all possessed or could qualify for the supervision or administration credential. By such accreditation they all declared an interest in a leadership role. Other characteristics of the new deans are as follows:

1. Six possess the doctorate or are enrolled in a doctoral program
2. Five have previous administrative experience in the field of education—business and/or military
3. Four have previous administrative experience in fields other than education
4. Seven have actively participated on teacher committees
5. Seven are contributing members of educational and professional associations
6. Six have recent teaching experience at the junior college level
7. Seven are married and have one child or more
8. Five have experience as a member of a service club.

Finally, while there was no age limit specified for the positions and no conscious effort was made to stay within age restrictions, the age range at the time of assignment was between thirty-seven and forty-seven. In all cases the appointee was the first choice of the screening committee. With one exception, the appointee was selected on the basis of open competition from both within and without the college. For the one exception the appointment was not announced outside the college.

Care and Nourishment of the Dean: What can one do to help the dean improve in his position? At least three parties must have responsible involvement in this process—the president, the faculty and the dean himself. While each would like to believe his contribution stemmed from an "altruistic attitude," it would be more realistic if each would confess that a successful dean is important for everyone's personal self-interest and success.

The president should have, and must display, faith in the dean. He must stay out of the dean's way as much as possible but be available to him at all times. He must delegate both responsibility and commensurate authority. The president should do all he is able to support superior salaries, physical surroundings, equipment, staff morale, fair teaching loads, and other features that improve education and working conditions for both the dean and

faculty. He must respect the dean's loyalty to his division and its faculty, as he expects it for himself. The dean's position must be one of dignity and the dean must be considered a full member of the leadership team. The dean must be able to present his viewpoint even though it is contrary to that of the president. In extreme cases, when a decision of the president calls for unusually difficult and unpopular action, the president should assume his responsibility and take the heat off the dean.

The faculty must be concerned with quality education. An enlightened faculty recognizes the importance of the dean's role in the college structure. It is concerned with the development of administration at its best and contributes in a positive way in supporting the dean and the total administration in the development and improvement of policies and procedures. It does not display intellectual and emotional immaturity by decrying administrative leadership—at least not until it has been frustrated in positive and constructive efforts to improve an unwholesome situation.

The faculty member must recognize that his division and its needs will not always receive first priority. There will be times when the dean cannot in good conscience support the position of the faculty. The faculty must respect the dean's right to disagree and not take the position that the dean must be with them "all the way" or he's against them "all the way."

The dean is much aware of the fact that he has two reference groups. A superior dean will make the most of this situation by developing a bicultural association—deriving a positive relation to each. The dean must "be his own man" and, with tact, integrity, and high character, he will be able to retain the trust and cooperation of the teaching faculty and the administrative faculty alike.

If he is worthy of his job, the president will expect and invite innovation, evaluation, and prodding—done in good taste—from the dean. The president will not tolerate "undercutting" or "double talk" from his dean. The faculty should not be "saddled" with a "pussy-footed," evasive, vacillating leader. The sooner the dean learns that he must stand up to be counted and measured on his own merits the better are his chances for success. The dean will almost inevitably make enemies. It had better be accomplished on honorable grounds.

Some deans play the role of the strong silent man. They possess the attitude that, "It is better to remain quiet and have people think you are a fool, than to open your mouth and remove all doubt." The truth of the matter is that a "fool is a fool"—with mouth open or closed! The dean must be a leader or positive things won't happen in his division. He has a prime position which enables him to challenge the faculty to higher and greater accomplishments. The dean must lead or, at least, support and join the faculty in providing improvement. Just as the dean will have to nudge the president to keep him alert, he will also have to "ride herd" on the faculty. He will have to stimulate them, force them to self-scrutiny, and provide examples of what is good or better. He may even have to make changes.

The dean should not have to choose between being a clerk, an academic housekeeper, a faithful and obedient servant *or* a benevolent despot and dictator. The dean must be a free and total man or the best minds and spirits leave the field. God bless those who survive with honor and dignity.

SESSION 8

Teaching the Special Student: Developmental Programs

TEACHING THE SPECIAL STUDENT: DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMS

Introduction by Thomas B. Merson, Director of Research
California Junior College Association
Bakersfield, California

Definition of "Special Students": Dictionary synonyms for "special" include "uncommon" and "noteworthy." Overworked junior college teachers sometimes declare that these students are not uncommon, they are ubiquitous! And they sometimes exclaim that they are not noteworthy, but as *students* they are *not*-worthy.

In assigning the panel its task, Dr. Shannon asked it to discuss "the students generally found in the lower one-quarter of the junior college classes." Even this definition leaves us partly at sea, because the students chosen by this definition at Bennett or Pine Manor would differ in many respects from the groups selected on this basis from Crane or Laney.

For purposes of this discussion, let's agree that we are talking about students in two-year colleges which operate under the open-door policy. (Even these colleges differ markedly.) A college of this kind might have the following characteristics:

1. The college enrolls up to 75 per cent of the graduates of feeder high schools.

2. Up to 10 per cent of the college day enrollment and 20 per cent of the evening students are non-high school graduates.

3. The college offers a variety of apprentice classes, M.D.T.A. and skills-center programs.

In effect, these colleges are true community colleges, enrolling (almost) a true cross section of the community they serve. In such colleges, we would find the "lower one-quarter of the students" to be typified as students who:

1. Following a poor record of scholastic performance in elementary school, completed Track 3 or Track 4 in high school with barely a C average (About 15 per cent will have less than a C average)

2. Are severely deficient in basic skills, i.e. language and mathematics

3. Have poor habits of study (and probably a poor place to study at home)

4. Are weakly motivated, lacking home encouragement to continue in school

5. Have unrealistic and ill-defined goals

6. Represent homes with minimal cultural advantages, and minimum standards of living

7. Are the first members of their family to attend college, hence have a minimum understanding of what college requires or what opportunities it offers.

Using national college test norms, approximately 45 per cent of the student body of a community college can be expected to fall in the lower quartile. Approximately one-fifth of community college students (in an open-door college) will fall in the lowest decile.

Definition of Developmental Programs: Junior college educational strategies for lower quartile students range from providing no program to providing complete programs for a summer session, semester or year. The following programs are representative of current operation:

1. "The High-Fence Program": Through admissions screening, these colleges do not admit high-risk students.

2. "The Throw-Em-in-the-Lake Program": Any student is admitted, but no special programs are provided. The student sinks or swims in the regular program.

3. "The Fishing-Line Program": All students are admitted. Screening and special repair is provided in one field (English). Other programs are unmodified.

4. "The Help! Help! Program": Student tutors are available for individual help.

5. "The Practice-Pool Program": Every major offered by the college has established prerequisites. Special repair course sequences are provided and must be completed before students are admitted into any major.

6. "The Life-Raft Program": Students who go on probation are eligible for special counseling and special instruction.

7. "The Shallow-Channel Program": This program has many variations, but one element is common: To identify before admission all high-risk students and enroll them in *complete* programs designed to give them opportunity to repair repairable essential skills. Variations in operation include the following:

a. Students enter on probation, or no probation penalty at admission.

b. Students enroll with or without college credit.

c. Students start in a summer session or in a regular session.

d. Programs are given by the college or by another institution (i.e., high school or special evening programs).

8. "The Use-the-Bridge Program": These programs admit the futility of placing exclusive or primary emphasis on developing academic skill. Rather, programs are built around the goal of developing employability.

9. "The Swim-Over-There Program": These programs appear (i.e., area vocational schools) where community colleges are unwilling to provide special programs but are not unconcerned about the problem.

The Appropriateness of Developmental Programs in Junior Colleges:

1. The need for appropriate postsecondary education for the majority of youth and adults is well documented.

2. Traditional college programs which are designed for upper-quartile students are inappropriate for lower-quartile students. Special programs are essential if special students are admitted.

3. The *raison d' etre* of the community college rests on its adaptation to all who can profit from instruction.

4. If community colleges are primarily teaching institutions, they should be ideally suited to cope with instructional problems which exceed the teaching capabilities of traditional colleges.

5. The effectiveness of repair programs has been demonstrated vividly by almost every junior college. Thousands of students who are ineligible for admission to traditional colleges succeed in junior college.

6. In spite of abundant evidence of the success of developmental programs, many junior college administrators and staff only reluctantly accept responsibility for initiating these programs in their institutions.

7. Questions:

a. What should be the stance of a community college with respect to their responsibility for developmental programs?

b. What kinds of programs have proved successful?

c. What innovations are now being tried?

d. What advice would you give a college with respect to these programs?

These are the questions panel members will discuss.

TEACHING THE SPECIAL STUDENT: DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMS

Recorder's Report by Harvey Charles, Vice-President
Onondage Community College
Syracuse, New York

The special students referred to in this report are those in the lower quarter of the junior college class. These would be students found in two-year colleges which operate under an open-door policy. Such colleges are truly community colleges and represent a cross section of the community which they serve. Typical characteristics of the special student include the following:

1. Performance in high school—low C average
2. Severely deficient in basic skills; that is, language and math
3. Poor study habits
4. Weakly motivated
5. Unrealistic and ill-defined goals
6. First members of their family to attend college.

Such students require special programs designed to upgrade basic skills which will enable them to pursue successfully one or more of the usual programs found in the junior college setting. The appropriateness of such programs for junior colleges is well documented in the literature. Traditional college programs are designed for upper-quartile students. Consequently, special programs are essential if special students are admitted. Several questions raised by the chairman relate to the following:

1. What should be the posture of a community college with respect to their responsibility for developmental programs?
2. What kinds of programs have proved successful?
3. What innovations are now being tried?
4. What advice would you give a college with respect to these programs.

Johnnie Ruth Clarke, dean, Skyway Campus, St. Petersburg Junior College, St. Petersburg, Florida, provided an overview of Florida's approach to the problem of providing "for the less able student." Her basic question was one related to what we have done to provide an adequate program for the less able student. She referred to the "directed or guided programs" as one approach to provide education designed to serve the special student. These programs are "designed primarily for students with demonstrated ability," but who for various reasons, have a weak academic background in one or more of the basic skills. The curriculums of such programs include courses in math, English, science, reading, social sciences, and personal planning and development. Some colleges provide special instruction in the area of reading. High success is reported at most colleges in Florida offering such programs. Most students are moved into the regular college tract with little difficulty. In most cases, students reach academic performance levels within a semester.

Increased enrollments, as well as the large number of Negro students entering primarily all white colleges, necessitates bold action in order to meet new challenges. Coordination with the division of community junior colleges and various two-year institutions helps maintain sensitivity to the needs of the disadvantaged at this level. A sharing of successful practices by the twenty-four junior colleges serves the best interests of the program. A conference to be held in April is designed to discuss and evaluate present procedures and plans for future discussion. One phase of this conference will concern a consortium of junior colleges designed to assist those students who cannot be served by the "directed or guided" student programs. This projection proposes the creation of a new department which will house a program of compensatory studies. The program is being developed for the student with little motivation, low interest and poor academic potential. The planned curriculum includes studies in math, social sciences, communications, and the physical and biological sciences. The primary goal of the program is to help the student to become educationally mobile, efficient and more realistically motivated in his goal selection.

James [illegible]. Smoot, coordinator, State University Urban Center, S[illegible]e University of New York, discussed the special stude[illegible] in New York State. Programs for such students in this area are 'relatively few and generally unspectacular' when viewed in terms of what could and should be done. There are signs, however, that meaningful programs are in progress. The State University of New York and the City University of New York are committed to provide opportunities for all high school graduates to secure secondary educational experiences by 1975. In New York State, the state education department is surveying existing programs in all the colleges. A small number of programs for disadvantaged students have been proposed and a major number of the two-year colleges admit to evening programs students who do not qualify for enrollment in the regular day sessions. A few of the two-year colleges have conducted special programs. Campus academic plans of the State University of New York two-year units reveal plans to initiate in 1967-68 short-term vocational classes for students who do not meet admissions requirements for the regular enrollment. The open door in New York State's two-year colleges is only "slightly ajar" brought about by limited facilities, limited funds, and limited vision.

Some special programs have been launched in an effort to learn more about the potential and plans for educating the special student. These include: college discovery programs, operation SEEK, and urban centers which will provide vocational, short-term, nondegree, early employability programs.

In addition, counseling and placement services are provided. The teacher is, without question, the most important element in the success of such programs. This, Dr. Smoot submits as most discouraging in light of evidence that not enough qualified teachers can be brought into an effective working force to provide for the academic needs of such students. Such teachers require specific qualifications which Dr. Smoot outlines:

1. He must have a worthy regard for the challenge of turning on the turned-off student.
2. He must seek change in the present curriculum or ignore it.
3. He must have the "mix" mastery of this teaching field plus the ability to present the material at the students' level.
4. He must reject the upward mobility thrust that leads some of his colleagues to accept a four-year or university position thus regarding the two-year college as a stopover.
5. He must be willing to live with the knowledge that many people believe such students have no place in a college.
6. He must welcome computer-assisted instruction and seek ways of using it.
7. He must welcome as equal partners in teaching

the special student—Peace Corps returnees, VISTA workers, and teacher aides.

8. He must give up the belief that to be nonverbal is to be a nonlearner.

9. He must believe in the educational worth of the special student.

10. He must be willing to give up his subject-centered orientation in favor of involving himself with the student in relevant educational experiences which stress the processes by which learning takes place.

Harvey B. Rhodes, vice-president for adult education, Modesto Junior College, Modesto, California, discussed the New Hope Adult Retraining Project, a program of the adult division of the Modesto Junior College. The program is planned to provide education for 1,000 undereducated and unemployed adults. The project is sponsored by the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Referrals were made to the college for vocational training by the department of employment. Students who could not meet the criteria for entrance into vocational training were referred to a prevocational program designed to upgrade basic areas necessary for the vocational program. After completion of the vocational training program trainees were referred back to the department of employment and placement.

Objectives of New Hope Program:

1. To assist the undereducated and unemployed adult to qualify for vocational training through a program of basic education

2. To assist the undereducated and unemployed adult to develop those capabilities which will enable him to secure employment in an entry level occupation

3. To assist these trainees to develop those competencies which would allow them to maintain continued employment.

Vocational Training Projects: A total of fifty-three vocational projects were implemented during the life of the project and over 80 per cent satisfactorily completed. Those included were:

Food Services
Waitress (4)
Cook and kitchen helper (4)

Health Services
Nurse aide (12)
LVN (4)
Dental assistant

Agriculture
Groundsman
Dairy hand
Vine-tree pruner
Farm mechanics (2)

Others
Custodian (7)
Dry cleaner (3)
Service station attendant (2)
Homemaker aide

Business
Salesman (4)
Cashier
Clerk-typist (3)
Bookkeeper (2)
Bank teller

The program served to assist undereducated and unemployed adults to qualify for vocational training through a program of basic education.

Specific gains to the trainee are:

1. The adult with less than four years of schooling could be expected to advance about one school year in four months.

2. The adult with four to nine years of schooling could be expected to advance between two and three years in four months.

3. In the area of mathematics the adult will generally advance between two and three years in a period of four months regardless of his prior schooling.

4. Intelligence, perceptual, verbal and manual aptitudes will increase after training in basic education.

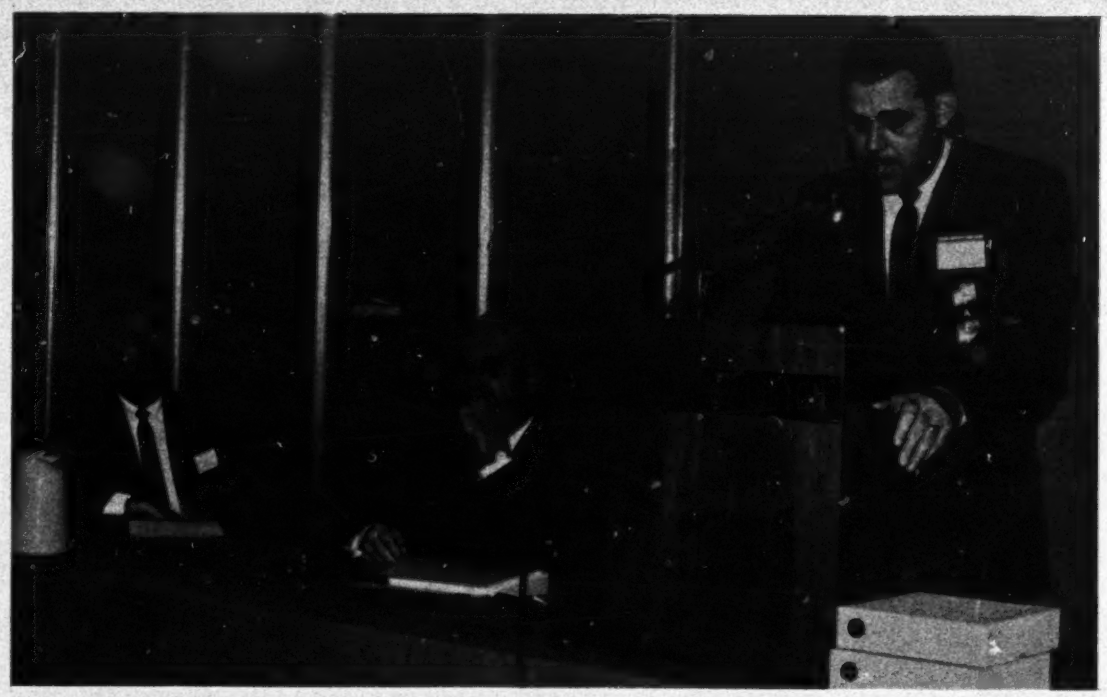
5. It appears that adult academic progress does not exist on a uniform plane. These adults exhibit considerable knowledge about specific areas and little, if any, knowledge about other areas. There appears to exist a considerable number of knowledge gaps.

6. Students remained in the prevocational phase an average of four months.

Concomitant outcomes of the program are:

1. Responsibility in trying to help others
2. Increased attendance at night school
3. Participation in community affairs
4. Greater awareness of the need for education for self and family
5. Fewer legal problems
6. Improved physical being and dress
7. Acceptance of authority figure
8. Greater use of community services

In addition, the program served to assist the undereducated and unemployed adult to develop capabilities to enable him to secure employment. Further, it aided the trainees to develop competencies which would allow him to maintain continued employment.



SESSION 9

The Educator-Architect Team: Planning Community College Facilities

THE EDUCATOR-ARCHITECT TEAM: PLANNING COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACILITIES

By James M. Hughes, Associate Partner
Caudill Rowlett Scott
Houston, Texas
and
Leroy V. Good, President
Monroe Community College
Rochester, New York

Planning a college involves the talents and energies of a number of professionals whose areas of knowledge and experience play greater or lesser roles at various phases of the development. It requires a team of experts and I emphasize the word team because it is indicative of the spirit that should prevail throughout the total effort.

There are really two teams—the educational team and the architectural team—each of which works independently at certain times while at other times they join together and work collectively as one team. The educational team consists of the college administration and staff, the board of trustees, educational consultants, advisory committees, etc. The architectural team is composed of architects, planners, landscape architects; civil, mechanical, electrical, and structural engineers; various consultants such as food service, acoustical, and theater specialists; interior designers. The architect acts as coordinator and calls upon the talents of each of these professionals throughout the development of the project.

In this presentation we hope to emphasize the functional relationship of the educator and architect in developing a new community college campus. Dr. Good and I have been in the midst of this process for the past three years in the development of the new campus for Monroe Community College in Rochester, New York. By telling you the story of the development of the Monroe Community College I think we can give you a good example of how a community college campus is evolved.

Monroe Community opened its doors to the first freshman class of 720 in September 1962 offering two-year university-parallel curriculums in liberal arts, science, engineering, and business administration, as well as two-year curriculums in career, business, and various technologies to prepare graduates for immediate employment in the highly diversified organizations and firms of the Rochester and Monroe County areas. The college continues to occupy temporary facilities in the former East High School.

In September 1967, the college will be operating from its new campus just south of the city of Rochester at the center of Monroe County. The new campus will have facilities for 4,000 students with planned expansion to 6,000.

Site Selection: Problems of site selection will vary considerably from one college to the next. One college, for example, might have a single obvious choice while another might be faced with a decision involving a choice from among several possibilities each of which could include varying degrees of pressures which tend to influence decisions. Whatever the circumstances there are certain tests which should be applied to any site so that the final decision will be based on an intelligent and rational evaluation.

Some of these significant factors to be considered in evaluating a site are:

1. *Topography*—The lay of the land. Is it a flat site, gently rolling, or the side of a mountain? Are there any characteristics of the topography which would be assets or liabilities to the development of the campus?
2. *Aesthetic Qualities*—Any natural physical characteristics such as water formations, landscape features, views, which might be good assets to the development of the campus, or which on the other hand might cause real problems.
3. *Soils Conditions*—Preliminary soils analysis should be made of any site seriously being considered to determine the ability of the subsoils to support foundation loads. This is not an expensive operation and is good insurance against the possibility of costly corrective foundation work.
4. *Location*—in relation to the service area of the college—proximity to freeways and expressways. In locating a commuter college, time is important, not distance.
5. *Traffic Generation*—Accessibility. Can roads and streets adjacent to the site adequately handle the considerable traffic generated by a commuter college?
6. *Cost of the Land*—Always an important consideration but should not necessarily be the most influential one.
7. *Availability of Utilities*—Are public utilities available? If not, how does the cost of building your own sewage plant or water system fit into the overall cost picture?
8. *The Relationship to Surrounding Areas*—What are the present or proposed uses of lands adjacent to the site? Will these be assets or liabilities to the college environment?
9. *Size*—Expansion potential.
10. *Zoning or Code Restrictions*—Are there any that would impose undesirable limitations on the development of the site?

Depending on other circumstances, some of these factors will weigh more heavily than others in the final analysis. There are often strong political forces which must be dealt with and sometimes the offer of a free site which may or may not be desirable. Whatever the circumstances, a decision based on a proper evaluation of a site is wise.

Educational Specifications: Educational specifications fall in a phase of campus development that is sometimes called programing, and occasionally these terms raise a semantics problem. In one person's mind the educational

specifications include enrollment and curriculum projections and the why and how of a community college, while the program spells out the numbers and sizes of the various types of spaces required to implement the educational processes.

Actually they are one and the same. Programing is the process of gathering data and the educational specification is the documentation of the data and should be all inclusive. However, educational specifications can be developed in two phases. For master planning purposes only the big picture is required. Based on enrollment projections, the established curriculums and a distribution of the enrollment by curriculums there are ways of determining gross areas required for each discipline and service function which are quite adequate for master planning purposes. We are concerned here with the big area picture which will enable us to organize the major elements into building units in developing the campus along with all the other criteria.

For master planning purposes the educational specifications should include a clear statement of the philosophies and purposes of the college. What are the aims and goals of this particular college? By what methods does the college intend to implement them? What kinds of students will there be? What are their physical, cultural, social and emotional needs?—particularly important questions for commuter students. The educational specifications should include enrollment projections. What is the maximum enrollment expected on this campus? When and by what rate of growth will this be reached? What curriculums will be offered based on the needs of this particular community? What will be the percentage of curriculum distribution among the students when the maximum enrollment is reached, at Phase 1, at Phase II, at Phase III, or IV, if the college is expected to grow in multiple stages?

Obviously, no one can answer all of these questions with complete accuracy for a situation that might not become reality for a number of years hence. However, it is essential that assumptions be made at this time in order to do intelligent planning. And the key to an ultimately successful campus is periodic updating of enrollment and curriculum projections and a corresponding updating of the master plan. This is essential to insure the orderly development of a multistage campus.

The second phase of the educational specifications deals with the specific numbers and sizes of spaces required for each discipline and supporting function to be housed on the campus. This is the prelude to building development and it is on the basis of this detailed space program that functional aspects and affinities of spaces for each building unit will be developed.

I would like to stress here the importance of proper documentation of all background data on which the space program is based. This implies first of all a determination of the sizes and types of teaching spaces that will be required to implement the educational program. What are the optimum class sizes that respond to this program and this methodology? How many students should be accommodated in a laboratory? Will there be an emphasis on individual learning? Having made these and other decisions a curriculum schedule can be developed showing the course, the number of students enrolled and the number of contact hours per week. Using room utilization factors, the various types of spaces required can then be determined.

There is really no substitute for this kind of thoroughness in programing space requirements. It effectively separates wants from needs and establishes a sound basis for justification of every space in the program.

The Monroe Community College has a well-balanced distribution of educational spaces, and this evolved from a thorough and well-drawn set of educational specifications.

Master Planning: Master planning any campus involves certain basic processes and procedures which are common to all. Fundamentally, it is a process of arriving at a solution through the analysis and evaluation of a number of contributing factors. These are factors which influence and shape the plan.

Basically they include program, climate, site and cost.

Analysis of the program deals with the determination of the aims and purposes of the college, teaching methods and the kinds of people—students, faculty, and the community—who will use the facility. Spaces required to implement the educational program, their relationships and affinities; construction sequence and expansion requirements are also programatic data which must be documented and evaluated.

A thorough analysis and understanding of climatic conditions of the area is important. These include temperature (heating and cooling seasons), snow and sleet precipitation, and wind. Climate proved to be a major influencing factor in the planning concepts for the Monroe Community College.

The site should also be analyzed. Topography, access, circulation, soils characteristics, orientation, and ecology are among the data which should be gathered in investigating the site.

Cost, of course, has to do with funds available for the project, quality, and materials that might be used.

It is our practice to gather all of this material and document it in graphic form before any design studies begin so that an effective communication of the facts can be established with all concerned. Then, on the basis of this thorough analysis of all criteria, major planning concepts are evolved.

The Monroe project had two important program directions which influenced the final solution. Because of the cold climate in the Rochester area the administration wanted a campus of interconnected buildings so that a student, once having arrived on campus, could circulate indoors to all building units. Also, it was felt that the common service facilities should be located as centrally as possible to all academic disciplines.

The climate and site also had their share of influence. Cold winds during the winter come from the west. Also, traffic studies showed that the principal access to the site would be from the west.

The plan evolved as a series of interconnected buildings forming a wall to the west which literally turned the back of the campus to the cold winter winds and parking areas located adjacent to the site access points on the west. The campus is oriented to the east with the administration, library and student center buildings located at the hub of campus activity. Maximum glass is used on the east overlooking highly developed landscaped courts formed by the location of the building units.

The design of the master plan was done in Rochester and is the result of the combined efforts of the educator-architect teams. Each had done his homework well which led to a solution which quite adequately responded to the philosophies and programs of the college.

Building Development: In the building development phase there are four major architectural stages. Schematic design, design development, construction documents, and construction.

The schematic design stage consists of the establishment of affinities and relationships of all programed spaces, circulation patterns — architectural, structural, and mechanical systems—major building materials and the architectural character. Plans are developed but in a general and very schematic sense. The emphasis here is on sizes and relationships of all space elements, the systems of the buildings and the architectural character. At this time gross areas and a preliminary estimate of cost are determined.

The design development stage takes this a step

further. This is a period of refinement during which we are concerned with door locations and door swings, equipment layouts, detail conditions, and finishes and materials. Based on more complete drawings and information, a further statement of estimated cost is developed.

From the design development stage we move into construction documents where working drawings and specifications are prepared, and from there into bidding and construction.

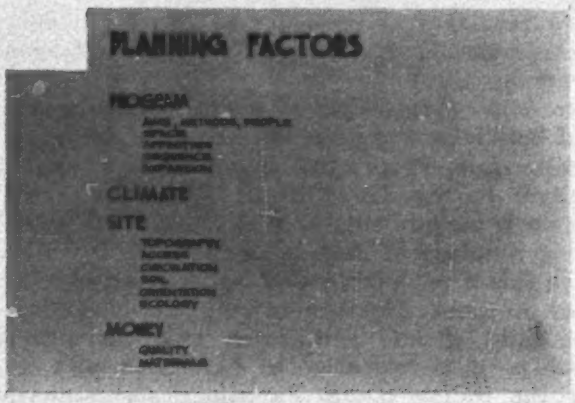
The educator and his team play important roles during the schematic design and design development stages with much less involvement during the construction documents and construction phases. It is essential that the educator—architect team perform to the utmost during these two critical stages for it is here that the imaginative proposals of the architect are tempered and strengthened by the educators viewpoint and the functional necessities.

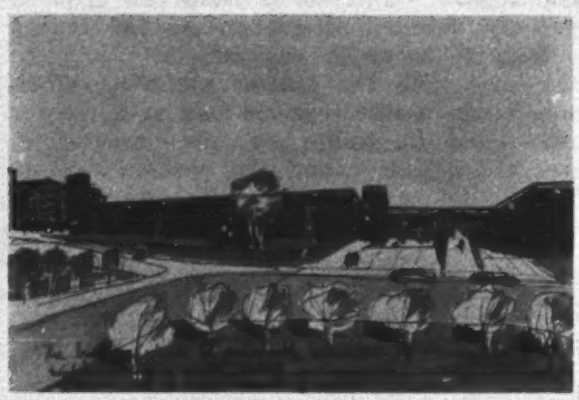
The keynote of the building design was flexibility—flexibility, not in the sense of immediate conversion of spaces, but rather in the ability to change spaces as program requirements change with a minimum disturbance to the buildings. A well-defined space program based on sound enrollment and curriculum projections provided a balanced distribution of educational spaces. Therefore, it was not deemed necessary or desirable to rely on folding partitions or other similar devices to effect space changes to meet program needs.

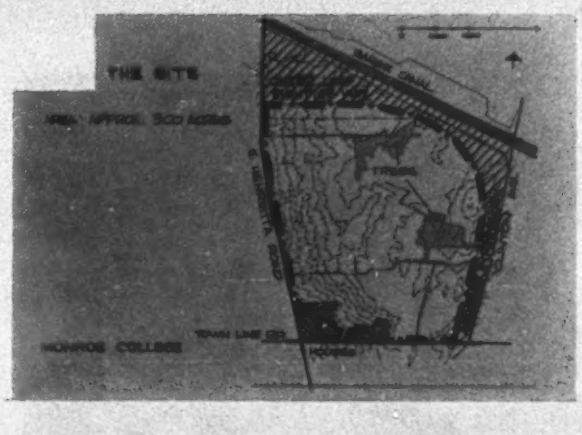
In order to achieve this kind of adaptability the entire complex of buildings was designed around a five-feet, six-inch square module. Programed spaces were adjusted slightly to adhere to the discipline of the module. All partitions fall on a module line and all spaces are composed of varying numbers of module units.

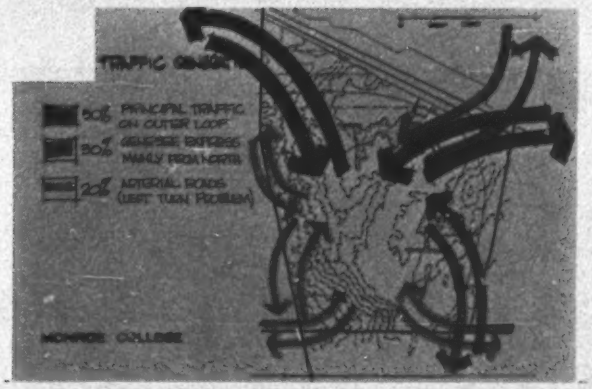
In line with this a modular, metal, self-contained ceiling system was designed. The system employs a uniform distribution of lighting and ventilation over an entire floor area which permits relocation of partitions with no disturbance to the ceiling plane. Partitions are nonload bearing and are constructed of metal studs and gypsum board with specially detailed attachment to the ceiling plane to allow them to be easily removed.

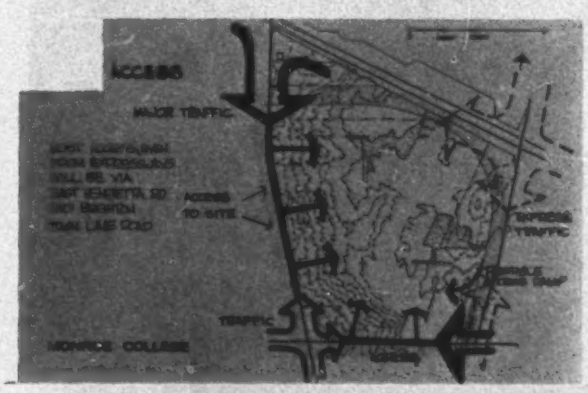
As was the case with the master planning effort, there were two separate design sessions held in Rochester during which the schematic design concepts were formulated. As before, the educator and the architect, along with their respective teams, worked together during this phase of development.

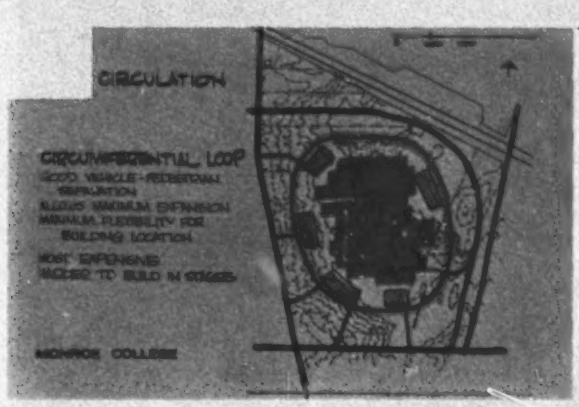

PLANNING FACTORS
PROGRAM
CLIMATE
SITE
MONEY
QUALITY
MATERIALS

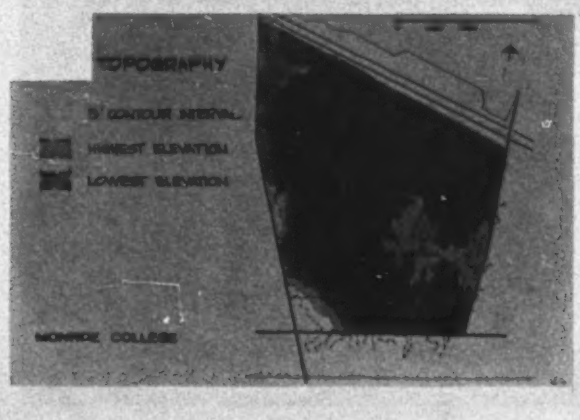



THE SITE
MONROE COLLEGE

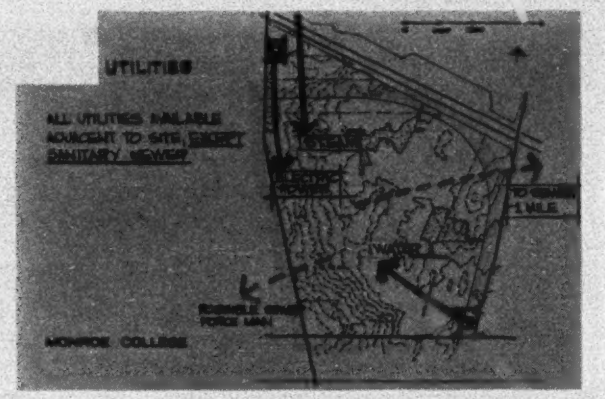

TRAFFIC CIRCULATION
50% PRINCIPAL TRAFFIC ON OUTER LOOP
30% GENERATE ENTERING MAINLY FROM NORTH
20% ARTERIAL ROADS (LEFT TURN PROBLEM)
MONROE COLLEGE

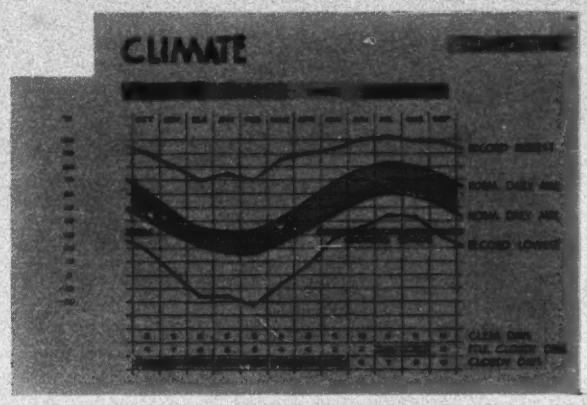

ACCESS
MAJOR TRAFFIC
ACCESS TO SITE
EXPRESS TRAFFIC
TRAFFIC
MONROE COLLEGE

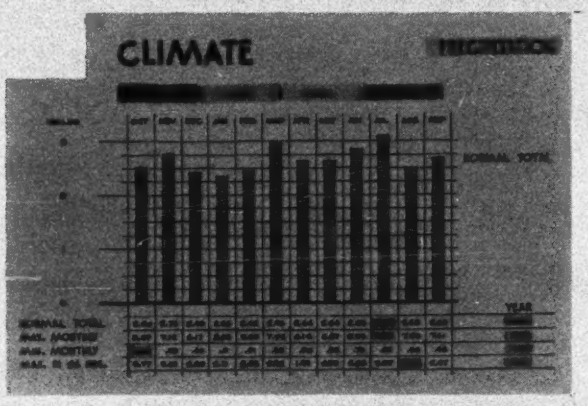

CIRCULATION
CIRCUMFERENTIAL LOOP
MONROE COLLEGE

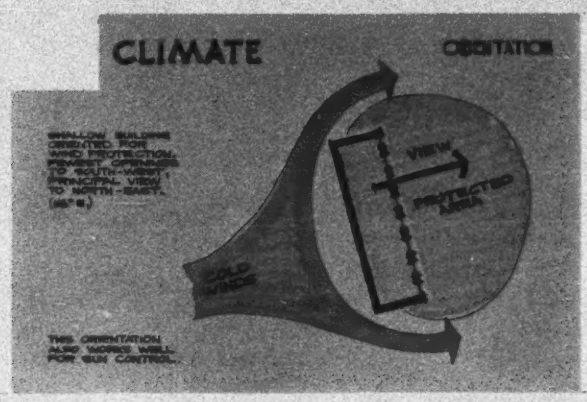

TOPOGRAPHY
5' CONTOUR INTERVAL
HIGHEST ELEVATION
LOWEST ELEVATION
MONROE COLLEGE

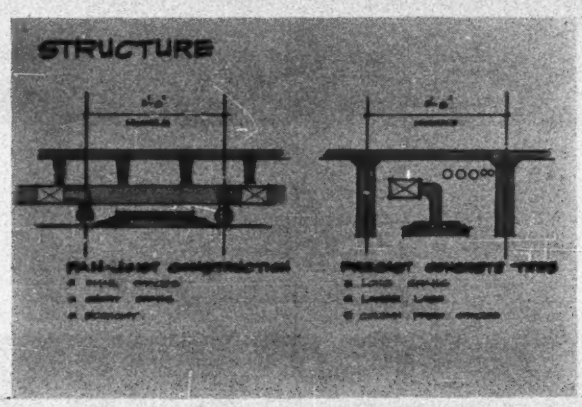
SOILS ANALYSIS
1 COMPACT TILL - WELL DRAINED
2 SILTY CLAY LOAM - MODERATELY WELL DRAINED
3 SILTY CLAY LOAM - POORLY DRAINED
MONROE COLLEGE

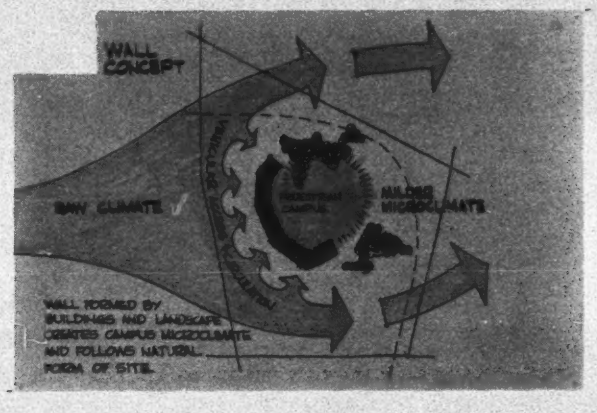

UTILITIES
ALL UTILITIES AVAILABLE ADJACENT TO SITE. DIRECT SANITARY SEWER
MONROE COLLEGE

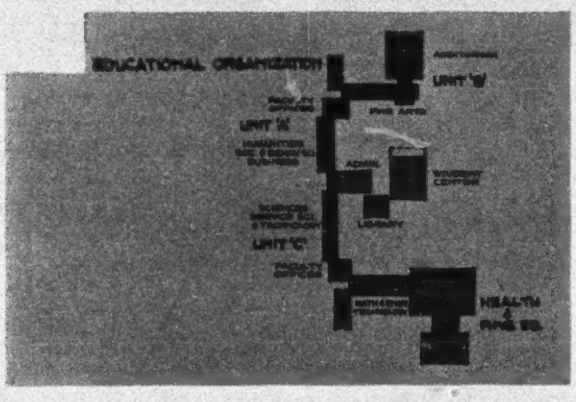

CLIMATE

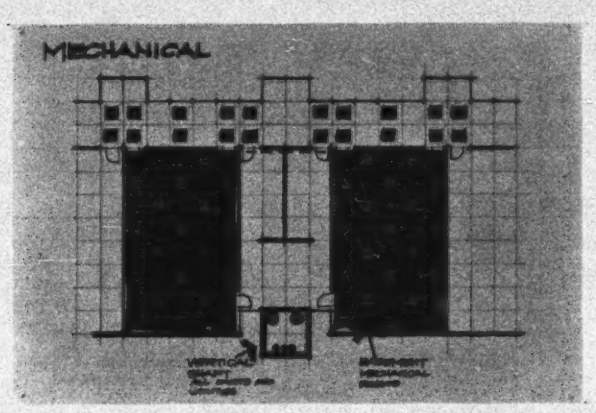

CLIMATE
PRECIPITATION

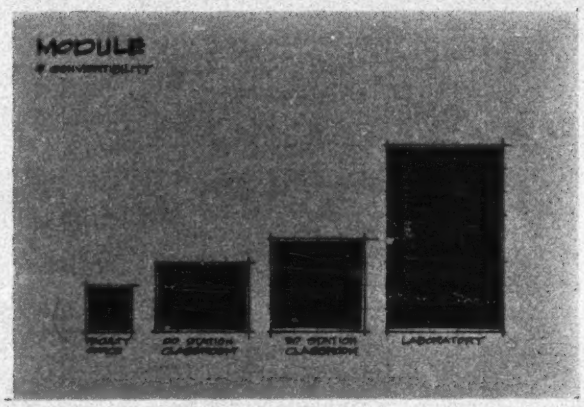

CLIMATE
ORIENTATION
VIEW
PROTECTED AREA
COLD WINDS

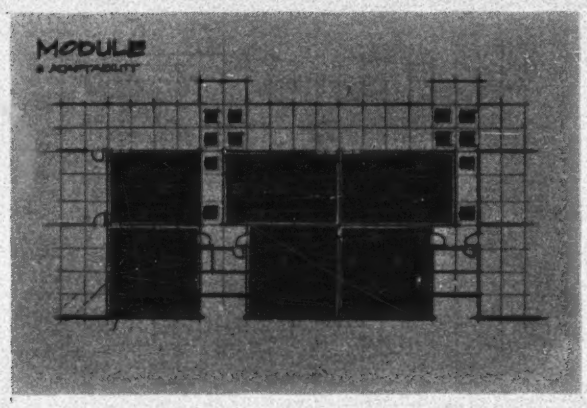

STRUCTURE


WALL CONCEPT
SUN CLIMATE
BUILDING MICROCLIMATE
WALL FORMED BY BUILDINGS AND LANDSCAPE CREATES CAMPUS MICROCLIMATE AND FOLLOWS NATURAL FORM OF SITE.


EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION
UNIT 'B'
UNIT 'A'
UNIT 'C'
HEALTH &


MECHANICAL


MODULE
LABORATORY


MODULE

SESSION 10

Occupational Education: Work Experience Programs

OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION: WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

By Grant Venn, Associate Commissioner
Adult and Vocational Education
U. S. Office of Education
Washington, D. C.

Less than a decade ago, the unofficial position of the federal government was to phase out vocational education as a government supported program. As late as 1958, the interest in the subject was so low as to be nearly nonexistent.

Not that anyone was particularly critical of vocational education. It just had no visibility at all. It was well-nigh impossible to get two people together to discuss the matter. Now—ten years later—it is no exaggeration to call it the number one federal program in education.

At the same time, this new visibility has uncovered some of the severe problems which plague education in the United States. One question which rises to the surface: Just how comprehensive are our schools and colleges?

The study just released by the National Association of Secondary School Principals on "Educating for Work," by Dale Draper of San Francisco State College, includes a fascinating report of a research project showing the levels at which students leave school to enter jobs. The project at the University of California, Berkeley, attempted to determine the responsibility each level of the educational system has for the employability of its students. The research team assumed a sample of 1,000 students at the seventh grade level and applied dropout and transfer rates from several research reports. Results showed that students tend to leave school at three different levels and enter jobs at corresponding levels.

There were 703 in level one . . . those with a minimum of vocational education. Of that group, 290 were high school dropouts, 206 were high school graduates who did not continue with any training, 114 were dropouts from lower divisions of four-year colleges, seventy-six were junior college dropouts and seventeen dropped out of special schools of one kind or another. These tend to enter jobs classified as unskilled or semiskilled work in machine and equipment operation, basic clerical and distributive jobs and skilled trades.

In level two, totalling 163, are those completing occupational programs at the junior college level or those who have gained competency in collegiate upper-division work. Of these, there were twenty-six graduates of special schools, seventy-five graduates of junior colleges and sixty-two upper-division four-year college dropouts. These tend to go into the semiprofessional, technical, and licensed occupations or into the more complex clerical or distributive jobs.

In level three, totalling 134, are those who have completed four or more years of college. Of these, sixty-seven graduate with baccalaureate degrees and another sixty-seven have some graduate study experience. These, of course, enter jobs as a rule which are categorized as managerial or professional.

In other words, about half the students will enter adult life with a high school education or less. Twenty per cent more who begin some type of post high school education will drop out before completing their objective. If it is assumed that educational institutions have a responsibility to send their products into the world of work adequately prepared—and I do—then it is obvious that the high schools and junior colleges are responsible for about eight out of ten students.

These conclusions of the N.A.S.S.P. study are reinforced in the President's message on education—delivered to Congress on February 28. Under the heading, "Education for the World of Work," President Johnson said:

> Three out of ten students in America drop out before completing high school. Only two out of ten of our Nation's young men and women receive college degrees.
>
> Too few of these young people get the training and guidance they need to find good jobs.
>
> I recommend legislation to aid secondary schools and colleges to develop new programs in vocational education, to make work part of the learning experience and to provide career-counseling for their students.
>
> A number of our colleges have highly successful programs of cooperative education which permit students to vary periods of study with periods of employment. This is an important educational innovation that has demonstrated its effectiveness. It should be applied more widely in our schools and universities.
>
> I recommend an amendment of the College Work-Study Program which will for the first time permit us to support cooperative education projects.
>
> I am also requesting the director of the Office of Economic Opportunity and the Secretary of Labor to use Neighborhood Youth Corps funds at the high school level for this purpose.

In other words, the official policy of the federal government and the results of scholarly studies in the field agree that the greatest present need in vocational education is for different programs designed for different needs to serve students who will be entering the world of work at different levels.

Now before the Congress is an administration supported proposal to provide for a new five-year program of grants to state boards and other entities to support innovative occupational education projects. These would serve as models for future vocational programs. Examples of the types of projects which might be supported are:

1. Exploratory occupational education programs to provide practical and educational experiences essential to understanding the demands and complexities of our modern society and opportunities in the constantly changing world of work. These programs would be designed to familiarize students with the broad range of occupations available to them and requisites for careers in the various occupations.

2. Programs or projects to provide students educational experience through part-time work to assist in their maximum development and help in linking school

and employment. Such programs would assist needy students to continue their education; promote a sense of achievement in school related work experiences; enlarge educational opportunities; develop recognition of the value of work; and establish communication channels between education and the world of work which are not now in existence.

3. Guidance and counseling to assure that all students' interests and capabilities are developed in relation to their career objectives and to ease in the transition from school to work by assisting them in initial job placement.

4. Improvement of curriculums to stimulate broad-scale innovative changes to provide more realistic vocational education programs for youth and adults at all skill levels. The curriculum changes would involve new instructional media; improved curriculum guides; and new techniques and service designed to meet the needs of youth and adults for entry into the world of work or for continuing education at the post-secondary level.

The funds appropriated would be apportioned among the states and outlying areas as follows: $150,000 would be apportioned to each state and outlying area, and the remainder would be apportioned according to population aged fourteen through nineteen.

Thirty million dollars would be authorized for fiscal year 1968.

As you can see, the proposal for this amendment to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 provides for cooperative work-study projects at all levels—high school, junior college, and college.

I believe the immediate future provides a golden opportunity for the two-year college in American education. The junior college is the great new hope, free of tradition and able to provide maximum flexibility in meeting the needs of its students.

No educational institution is as free to move in new directions as is the two-year college—which can make its impact felt in the levels below as well as above. Nowhere else can be found quite the same opportunities for partnerships with the high schools, for example, which the new federal programs are making possible, including the work-study programs.

Every junior college is, by nature, comprehensive, which gives it an edge in the competition to provide for the needs of students—vocational as well as academic.

Yesterday in Dallas, Commissioner of Education Harold Howe II told the National Association of Secondary School Principals convention that:

> The hour is late for development of a comprehensive curriculum, one that gives vocational offerings equal time—and I might add equal status— with the academic program.
>
> Equal time, equal status, and equal quality of instruction for vocational education require as a start a review and revision by educators of their own attitudes. To many, vocational training has always been an awkward appendage to the academic curriculum. It never quite fitted and was never really wanted. Until we are prepared to respect it in our own circles, we cannot expect parents or students or the community or industry to consider job training as a necessary function of the school system. Nor can we provide the support services that are equally important—such things as adequate and accurate career counseling, work-study programs, and job placement services.

The comprehensiveness of the nation's junior colleges gives them the leverage they need to fulfill the vocational requirements of the country's young people who elect to go beyond the high school. Single answers and single programs develop neither quality nor quantity in the educational process. One program offered to many different kinds of students will either lower the quality of the program or fail to serve the students. Since we cannot design our students to fit our preconceived notions of programs—then it follows that we must design the programs to fit the needs of the students.

Again, no other type of educational institution is better fitted to help meet the manpower needs of the nation at the technical level than the two-year college. At least it has the greatest potential to do so as long as its leaders keep in mind that the student is not clay to be molded to fit the system.

With this in mind, let me outline some basic issues I think we face in the school industry and in society as a whole.

First of all, as I said, 30 per cent of the youth in this country are still leaving before completing high school. Are we really going to revolutionize things and teach everyone to read and write and be confident that they can get vocational skills? They can't do it if they leave at that age level. We haven't focused on this problem. Of course, they aren't big enough yet to have, perhaps, stolen cars and gotten into real trouble, so we don't get quite as concerned as we should. I think that is a basic issue on which we have to focus.

Second, there is no clearcut way for many adolescents in our culture to move from childhood to adolescence to adulthood, to a contributing role as an adult in society. Primarily the 30 per cent, the dropouts, and many other youngsters in our schools do not see, the schools do not provide, a way by which they may move from adolescence into adulthood. Youngsters don't know what their parents do; they don't know about work. A major issue we are facing is that in a time of maximum national economic growth with an increasing gross national product and with unemployment down almost to 3.5 per cent, we have over 20 per cent of the young people in this country between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two unemployed. Over 30 per cent of the Negro youth in this country in this same age group are unemployed. At the same time, we have the greatest critical shortage of technical manpower we've ever had in this country because of the increasing impact of technology and the changing factors in the industry.

Someone developed a parallel on this that I'd like to pass on to you. He said we claim that religious background is the main source of the nation's strength and that education is the main link between society and the

individual and that industrial production is simply the means to an end. Yet take a look at the number of hours devoted to each of the plants where these activities take place. The churches stay open one day a week, the schools stay open five days, and industry runs 24 hours a day.

I think another issue is integration. Not our race integration issue, but an integration issue which may be more serious as far as economic levels of people's environment go. As we change rapidly, as educational levels are increased, as needs become greater, we find people tending to become isolated from society because of economic reasons. Then there is the geographical isolation or segregation which has resulted from certain of our rural areas being left out of the mainstream of developments.

The next major issue I see is this: because of the improved communications skills we have, the improved ability of people to find out what is going on in this earth, we have rising aspirations at a much greater rate than we have rising results, and consequently, we have rising frustrations exceeding both. Almost anyone who has a television set knows of the possibilities available to him as a citizen. Yet when we apply some of our programs to solve these problems, we don't necessarily find that a man and his family are in better condition.

I think we have another major issue which is sort of buried in our practices, times and problems. That is the educational level of adults. Over half of the adults in the United States of age twenty-five in 1960 had not graduated from high school in this country. These statistics from the 1960 census data mean that the majority of our adults face a real problem of adjusting to a rapid technological explosion and change.

Another major issue is the one involving jurisdictional control. Each of us, whether we are in industry, education or the federal government, is involved with this each day. Whose responsibility is it to do what? Who should run this program and who is getting my territory? Who should do this and who should do that? We have a terrific problem. Again, I think we can go back to the concept of stability when our nation was agricultural. Political boundries and definitions of responsibility were very easy to define because they always stayed the same. Now, with our great population mobility and growth and our speed of transportation, we find these jurisdictions being continually threatened and continually confused between the federal and state governments, between the schools and industry, and between city and county governments.

The big issue that we need to consider in approching this problem is the manner of job education and development as a solution vs. remediation and correction. Where do we put our bets in the long run? It really isn't an either/or thing, I'm afraid. We simply cannot say that those who are not educated and those who are isolated and locked out of our society for whatever reason are expendable, and forget them. But what do we do about the young people in our schools now in terms of the long haul? Do we simply allow them to drop out and then correct this later through remedial programs, or do we invest our money to get the largest return?

At the time of Jefferson, when it was decided everyone had to learn to read and write so that we could have a politically viable country, this was probably the extent of necessary educational horizons or aspirations. Essentially, those who were governing had to be able to read. At that time a majority of our people were in agricultural and related activities. Muscle power had some economic worth on the labor market.

I believe we have reached a time now when the question of occupational education comes into the same perspective as general education. The individual does not have an education unless he has occupational skills, because in many ways an individual's role in society is as a worker. It is more important to give him the basic psychological and ego development in terms of his having a part—maybe even an income.

The school is the one institution in which all of our young people come together in one way or another at one time or another. Nowhere else can we really focus our resources so effectively. Therefore, the schools must be changed from "selecting-out" institutions to "guiding-in" institutions—for the rich and the poor, the old and the young, the bright and slow.

In the old society—which has a margin for educational error—the school could be judge and jury. We sent home to the parents every six weeks an affidavit which said to half the children, "You are below the others." This was signed by the teacher, the principal and/or the superintendent—and the parent also had to sign it every six weeks to prove it was really true.

Believe me, you can force anyone out of an adult job if you send a note like that home to his wife every six weeks. Kids aren't that much different.

The responsibility of the schools for its students cannot be overemphasized. The responsibility is not just for instruction. It applies to those who leave as well as to those who remain—to the dropouts as well as to the stayins. It applies both to admissions and to placement. If a school—especially a junior college—is not willing to accept the responsibility for placement of a student when he leaves, then it should not admit him in the first place. And, in my opinion, when the dropout rate gets too high, a school should be liable for the loss of its accreditation.

No better insurance policy exists for the two-year college in meeting these responsibilities than the cooperative work experience program. It is a sound and time-tested method of education. Ever since 1906 when Dean Schneider introduced the new concept in the application of work to the educative process at the University of Cincinnati, co-op work-study programs have been proving their value. The concept that technical knowledge and personal growth can be developed effectively through actual on-the-job training is becoming more and more accepted by educators. The opportunity to substantiate learning of theory by seeing and participating in its application with business and industry has been proved a strong motivating force for students.

Work experience programs—often referred to as cooperative education—are currently found in colleges, junior colleges, community colleges, technical institutes, and secondary schools. These programs are recognized by many educators as an excellent way to train youth for a particular occupation by supplementing classroom and laboratory instruction with the learning opportunities of an actual job.

Cooperative work experience not only contributes to occupational competence but for most students it makes learning a pleasant and more meaningful experience. Youth involved in the program develop personal initiative and responsibility. They learn to work with others in an adult world; they recognize the importance of desirable attitudes and acceptable behavior as they associate with fellow workers on the job. Probably no other learning procedure can rival cooperative work experience as a motivating factor for a student to achieve the goals he has set for himself.

What are the objectives of cooperative work experience programs? First, they aim to provide opportunity for developing positive on-the-job personality characteristics. A new sense of responsibility toward a job will become apparent when a youth learns the important role work plays in the overall operation of the employing organization. He learns responsibility for completing assigned tasks within a reasonable amount of time and often ahead of fixed deadlines.

Second, they show the value of related classroom instruction as it specifically applies to his job. The youth participating in a cooperative work experience

program learns this quickly. The classroom work takes on new significance as the need for certain knowledge and skills become more apparent. It also may prove to be the most important incentive for many students.

On-the-job training experiences are for basically three purposes:

1. Beginning work experiences early in the curriculum provide occupational exploration.

2. Work experiences in the middle and latter part of the curriculum give the student the opportunity to test theory against practice and to teach skills which the institution feels are best learned on the job rather than in the classroom.

3. Experiences near graduation or immediately following it can be characterized as internships prior to entry into professional practice in which the student makes his transition, under supervision, to the role of the employed worker.

In some curriculums, occupational experience programs are provided which are designed to teach skills and operational procedures which the institution does not or cannot teach effectively. Often, experiences are provided in complex, expensive facilities found in business and industry which an educational institution would be unable to duplicate. Business and industry tend to remain out front in the development and use of new practices, procedures and equipment. The time lag in business and industry is usually less than in the classroom relative to new technology and equipment.

The main advantages of work experience are:

1. It introduces youth to the human problems of adjustment to the fast changing world of work technology.

2. It exposes youth to the new procedures, equipment and machines utilized in business and industry.

3. It provides the necessary articulation between academic theory and the world of work.

There is no better educational tool available to the nation's schools and colleges than this system of work experience. It is the best example available of the new thinking, symbolized by the changing attitudes of students as well as parents toward the world of work.

It used to be: "Son, you should get a good education so you won't have to work for a living."

Now, it is: "Son, you should get the best education you can so you will get the best job you can."

The greatest responsibility of education is to provide pathways through childhood and adolescence. In the past, there has always been a clear path through college; this alone will no longer do. We must provide other routes—directly into the adult world—from high school and from the two-year postsecondary institutions.

Just as the shops and classrooms are the laboratories for teaching and testing occupational skills, so the work experience programs are the laboratories for teaching and testing employability skills. This is the area in which our schools have failed their students more than in any other. About 95 per cent of the young people who lose their first jobs lose them not because of any lack of ability or proficiency—but because they don't know how to get along on the job.

We have the responsibility—and we have the know-how—to convert an unemployable adolescent into a productive adult; a liability into an asset.

Now, if I may, I would like to state some premises upon which I believe work experience programs should be based in order to be successful and in order to serve the real needs of our young people today:

In the first place, no high school or junior college can remain really creative without a direct relationship through the students with several employers. If the teachers, coordinators, and administrators become so isolated that there is contact with no one but their students in academic settings, there is no feedback on which to base change and improvement.

Secondly, work-study programs and entry job placement by the educational institutions create the contacts between the schools and the employers that result in a whole new pipeline of pressure for change.

Third, we need not only job skills, but people qualified in every way for employment. Work experience can be used as the laboratory to test these types of skills.

Fourth, the development of new pathways from adolescence to adulthood is the responsibility of the educational institution. The junior college should be prepared to accept the responsibility of helping each student to move on to the next step—whatever that step may be.

Fifth, occupational information and knowledge can never substitute for direct work or job experience. Reading has its place, but it can't do everything.

Sixth, work experience should, in every case, be as closely related to the classroom work as possible, except where a specific plan is made to give other experience. In other words, work experience should be an education as well as an experience.

Seventh, work-study programs should not be limited to the specifically occupational curriculum students. They have value for any student, no matter what his final goal may be.

Finally, work experience should always be of such high quality that it qualifies for earned credit toward a certificate.

Those are, of course, my opinions—but not, I trust, mine alone.

As I have said, the two-year college offers the great new hope in education—particularly in vocational education at the post-secondary level. And we are at the point of educational history now where we cannot afford to talk about vocational education on the one hand and general education on the other. Even though these are still, in many places, separate entities, they should be and will be merged.

No better vessel exists for the mixing together of these marriageable ingredients than the coordinated, comprehensive junior college of today and tomorrow.

OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION: WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

By Murray H. Block, President
Borough of Manhattan Community College
New York, New York

When the Borough of Manhattan Community College was established in 1964, the board and administration immediately decided that cooperative education would be an integral part of the educational offerings in career curriculums. Since the college was to be located in mid-Manhattan, in the heart of the business community, the first career programs were those designed to meet the personnel needs of the most rapidly growing business complex in the nation.

Among the guiding principles and objectives upon which the program was designed the following may be noted:

1. The program should be designed for students who aspire to supervisory, midmanagerial, and junior executive positions in the business and government communities.

2. Students would intern at selected business and government agencies in assignments directly related to their college studies.

3. It is assumed that practical experience serves to reinforce the academic disciplines.

4. Students would earn money (fifteen hours at a minimum of $1.50 per hour) which would help them to remain in college and provide funds for cultural enrichment, plays, symphonies, opera, etc.

5. The cooperative education program would also help the community in facilitating smoother transition of students from college to job.

6. Cooperative education would help to orient college students to the world of work.

7. Coordination of work and study would increase student motivation.

8. Cooperative education would promote human relations skills, such as those necessary in learning how to get along with supervisors and co-workers.

To further facilitate the cooperative education program, the college began operations on a quarter system. The assumption was that students would take fewer academic courses in each quarter, thus leaving sufficient time for cooperative work assignments. It should be noted that the quarter system was abandoned after two years and the traditional semester calendar substituted. Despite the advantages to the cooperative education program, the quarter system created other problems for students and faculty which caused its demise. The cooperative education program has since been accommodated to fit the semester calendar.

At present, the following are the curriculum areas in the cooperative education program at BMCC: accounting, advertising, data processing, marketing, secretarial science, real estate (to be added September 1967) and, transportation and shipping (to be added September 1967).

Originally, cooperative education was located in the Department of Student Life, together with the college work-study program. However, it became a matter of concern that cooperative education would be viewed more as a financial aid program than an educational offering. In September 1966, cooperative education became an instructional department within the framework of the Division of Business Administration. This change was also made to effect closer coordination between those responsible for cooperative education and the faculty in the participating business curriculums.

The cooperative education program is operated by a director and three coordinators. Approval is being sought to expand the staff. The director of cooperative education is responsible for overall operation of the program and serves as chairman of the department. The staff in this program have academic rank and participate as faculty in the overall academic life of the college.

A current list of cooperating business firms, public and nonprofit agencies, New York City and state institutions shows over one hundred employers of students now in cooperative education programs at B.M.C.C. The cross section of firms and agencies represented is broad indeed.

Since the beginning of the program in 1964, there have been more than one thousand internships in business and government institutions. All students pursuing two-year A.A.S. degrees for which the curriculum includes cooperative education are permitted to undertake internships of 600 hours maximum and 400 hours minimum. (three semesters, fifteen weeks per semester, fifteen hours per week). Students earn from four to six credits for cooperative work assignments.

The advisory committee was formed to help guide the faculty of B.M.C.C. in developing the most effective cooperative education program possible. The committee is composed of forty prominent citizens who represent business, industry, labor, and government. The committee is broken down into subcommittees representing the varied disciplines. They meet periodically to consider problems as they arise.

The Advisory Committee on Cooperative Education sponsors and conducts an annual career-placement conference; the first one was held in April 1966. The purpose of the first career-placement conference was to provide June 1966 graduates with expert information on the job market in New York City. The conference was also organized into small informal groups where more than forty experts gave students insights into the demands of the major fields where the college had interns—fields such as data processing, accounting, advertising, etc. The team approach used was most effective. There was also a dramatic presentation by students on the basic elements in a good job interview, as well as some of the mistakes to avoid. In the evaluation of the conference by the students, the small informal discussion groups were judged to be the most valuable.

In attempting to evaluate our cooperative education program, we have asked ourselves several questions. Some of these questions, and the answers we find follow:

1. Are students benefitting from their job experiences? It is our opinion, based on the evaluation sheets from supervisors, field visits, and the industry reports that students write, that our students are benefiting and developing from their internship experiences. By far, the majority of our graduates have apparently experienced no major difficulties in finding jobs in the fields where they worked as interns.

2. Are administrative procedures presently functioning effectively? Because of the changeover from the Department of Student Life to the Division of Business Administration, there have been some changes in record keeping. New forms have been developed and record keeping has been tightened up. The division of labor among the staff has been maintained, according to disciplines, and the only problem that has been encountered is finding adequate time for job development.

3. Are the students supervised well—by the college, by the various establishments? Our records of field visits, reports from students and supervisors indicate that our students are getting good supervision by the establishments, and government institutions, and by the college. The director and coordinators would like more time for field visits, but there is an enormous amount of paper work which must be maintained for efficient operation. We have accordingly put "first things first."

4. Are the students engaged in internships related to their areas of specialization? The majority of the internships have certainly been related to the curriculum offerings in the college. Whenever we have feedback from students to the contrary we move immediately to correct the situation or remove the student.

5. Are members of the instructional staff consulted regarding the educational value of prospective assignments? Interaction between the cooperative education staff and the instructional staff has improved since the shift to the business administration staff. Best collaboration to date is with accounting, advertising, banking, and secretarial science instructors. There are plans, through the advisory committee, for meetings with heads of the departments and with chairmen of subcommittees.

6. Are internships designed to afford adequate time for academic study? The staff of cooperative education has emphasized with all students the absolute necessity for planning adequate time for study. The college has discussed this matter with employers in relation to the design of the internship and there has been good cooperation. The employers who embrace cooperative education are keenly aware of the importance of academic study and they do reenforce efforts to emphasize this.

In summary, it should be noted that great progress has been made in only two and one-half years. We have received excellent support from the business, industrial and government communities. Our students have acquitted themselves well and have acted with marked responsibility. The business faculty has been friendly and cooperative with the special staff in this program.

Despite obvious success, much more remains to be done. We must wrestle with the question of part-time internships versus full-time internships. Some firms will not accept part-time personnel. Better follow-up studies are needed to trace success of graduates from cooperative education programs. There is need to expand the annual career conference into a series of ongoing seminars. There is also need to consider expansion of the program to all students. With imagination, cooperative placement opportunities can be developed for transfer as well as career students.

Although still in its infancy, the cooperative education program has already proven its worth. We are proud of the achievement of the dedicated staff, of the faculty and especially the cooperating businesses and agencies who have facilitated this unique venture at Borough of Manhattan Community College.

OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION: WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

By Norman E. Watson, Superintendent
Orange Coast Junior College District
Costa Mesa, California

There is nothing new about work experience education or cooperative work training programs except their relevance to mid-twentieth century college education. Their progenitors were the training programs for artisans offered by the guilds in the middle centuries and, later, apprenticeship education in the trades.

For whatever reasons, we have failed as educators to build employability into too many of our young men and women who will enter the job market after they leave junior college.

Educators cannot do this alone. Many times the vocational instructor who has been away from industry for a period of years has lost touch with current practices and procedures. The young person in order to become fully employable requires a combination of theoretical knowledge and practical experience.

Richard A. Lester, author of *Manpower Planning In A Free Society* stated: "We live in a job economy. Less than 15 per cent of the nation's work force are self-employed. The rest are job holders and job seekers. Paid employment supplies most of their income and occupies most of their days. Hence preparing for work, securing employment and moving up occupational ladders are matters of crucial importance to American people."

Yet many of us in the field of junior college education remain insulated from the realities of the community and its needs. Many of us unintentionally attempt to deafen our ears to the binary burps of technology and listen only to the sweet sounds of the classical muse. Is it any wonder then that many students regard institutions of higher education as intellectual nudist camps—places where nothing goes on. Marshall McLuhan said: "Many students do not care to subject themselves to the schools of today because they interrupt their education." We must demand the direct involvement of the student in the learning process.

Rollo May gives this illustration about a young man who spent an hour traveling on a subway to his work, eight hours on his relatively uninteresting job, ten minutes after work talking to a girl he had recently fallen in love with, and two hours in the evening at an adult education class. Today he remembers nothing of the two hours in the subway; the eight hours on the job made little impression on him; of the evening class he can recall a little more; but the ten minutes with the girl occupies him more. It is not the length of time but the meaning of time that matters in human contact.

Willard Spaulding, director of the California Coordinating Council for Higher Education, has stated: "Many young people who could have become successful in college are so strongly convinced they have no chance that they no longer try. They have been at war with the schools for years.

"Junior colleges with their open doors have a special role to play, but students who go though these doors must succeed if they are to compete in adult life. Junior colleges need to address themselves to the hard task of finding ways to teach these students so that many more of them will succeed in meeting the standards of performance."

Orange Coast College got into work experience programs originally as a result of recommendations from lay advisory committees. Representatives from business and industry pointed out that by and large our graduates had developed skills and abilities but were insecure on the job. It was taking too many hours and too many days for a graduate to get to learn his way around in the occupational sphere. Orange Coast College established programs in the technical and industrial areas as follows: electronics technician, radio-television electronics maintenance, electro-mechanical drafting, auto mechanics, machine shop, surveying, architectural drafting, and carpentry. In the business area some of the programs are: secretarial, agri-business, retailing and data processing.

Education needs to establish a beachhead of cooperation with business and industry. Such a beachhead can result in better understanding between leaders in business and industry and those in education. The California Junior College Association, through its committee on relations with organizations other than schools, has been successful in mounting a potent thrust in the area of occupational education. In cooperation with the Northern California Industry-Education Council and the Southern California Industry-Education Council, the California Junior College Association has set up a pilot project in junior college internship programs. Students are eligible to enter these programs at the completion of one year in junior college. They will then spend, during the next two years, alternate semesters in school and in business and industry. Careful preselection is made by colleges prior to referral to business and industry. Once on the job the student is considered an employee of the company and is subject to all rules and regulations. Four large statewide organizations are involved in the pilot program. These are: Bank of America, Pacific Telephone and Telegraph, Standard Oil of California, and Lockheed Missiles and Space. Other companies are watching the project closely and have expressed an interest in becoming involved. Two of these are Safeway Markets and Sears.

One of the unique responsibilities of the community college is effective occupational education. We must break down the artificial barriers which exist and utilize business and industry as laboratories. Business and industry today are ready for this step in terms of interests, their research commitment and manpower needs.

Walter F. Casey, former president of the United States Chamber of Commerce, summed it up by saying: " . . . The education of our youth is this generation's debt to the future and the future will judge how well we have discharged it."